The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 31, 1901.

The Week.

It is reported from Washington that Senator Aldrich has had a long interview with the President, in which he (Aldrich) has urged that there shall be no legislation on the currency question this winter, and none on the tariff question, and that none of the pending reciprocity treaties shall be ratified. The writer says also that, judging by what the influential Senators and Representatives who have been in consultation with the President during the present month have said to him, it is probable that his first message to Congress will not recommend the reciprocity treaties or any currency legislation, but that he will have something to say about the growing power of industrial combinations or Trusts. It is very probable that Senator Aldrich is opposed to the reciprocity treaties—all of them. The French treaty makes a reduction of the duties on pinchbeck jewelry. Aldrich is strongly opposed to that, and of course he could not consistently vote in favor of the Argentine treaty or any other, while opposing the French treaty. It does not follow, however, that President Roosevelt has been moved from his declared purpose to carry out, so far as it lies in his power, the policy of President McKinley in this regard. We shall be much surprised if he changes front on this question, but, of course, nothing commits him to an aggressive campaign for reciprocity. Nothing commits him to the kind of fight for it that he made at Albany for the Franchise-Tax Law. The battle must be fought by the Western manufacturers who held the Detroit convention last spring, and they must not be discouraged if they do not win the first round. The President, we feel sure, will not go back on them.

Col. James Kilbourne, the Democratic candidate for Governor of Ohio, made a speech at Bucyrus on Wednesday of last week, in which he gave some attention to the situation in the Philippines. The tone of his remarks was serious, but not in any manner offensive to the supporters of the prevailing policy of the Government. Mr. Kilbourne is a manufacturer, and he says that it is idle to suppose that we shall ever get back from these islands what they are now costing us. Whether we call it conquering the islands or putting down the rebellion, we are paying out for this purpose $100,000,000 per year, not to mention the precious blood we are pouring out there. And how are we to get anything back? Some people say, by trade with the people. But there is no trade worth mentioning so long as the war continues. There can be very little trade, even after the islands are subjugated, with a people who hate us, and have been impoverished by us. On the other hand, we had a very considerable trade with the Philippines before the war. "My own company," said Mr. Kilbourne, "shipped goods by the carload to the Philippines twenty years ago."

Who would have believed it possible after reading the American denunciations of Spain's Cuban concentration policy in 1897 and 1898, that within three years American generals would be applying it in the Philippines? Yet the unexpected has come to pass. In Samar the strictest orders have been given for the entire population of the island to concentrate in towns, accompanied by the threat that any one found outside them will be shot or hung as an enemy of the American people. Any man who would have dared to prophesy in 1898 such a state of affairs, would have been denounced far and wide as a slanderer of the United States. Now, however, we have changed all that, and it is almost impossible to get newspapers which were most outspoken in their denunciations of Spanish misrule to discuss the situation in the Philippines. When they are forced to comment upon it by such mishaps as the recent disasters in Samar, it is only to assure their readers, as did the New York *Times* recently, that the state of things in Luzon is satisfactory.

Just how satisfactory it is in that island, appears from Gen. Chaffee's remarks apropos of a court-martial sentence, in the course of which he declared that the "whole Philippine people" were now engaged in making war in a manner not in accordance with the recognized laws of war. Officers who have returned lately from the Philippines have recorded their belief not only that all the troops now there will be needed to keep them in subjection, but that the number may need to be increased to 60,000. It is understood, too, that several of the staff generals who spent the summer in the islands have brought back far more discouraging reports than have been allowed to leak out. The constant treachery of the Filipino civil officials lends color to the oft-repeated assertions that even those who have taken office in Manila are at heart against the Americans. It was but natural, therefore, for Judge Taft to frown upon the recent formation of a third Filipino political party, whose avowed object is "the Philippines for the Filipinos." Upon the 7th of February next the war in the archipelago will be in its fourth year. How much longer will the American people consent to such a waste of treasure and blood? How much longer will they care to have their actions in the East cited by Mr. Chamberlain and his fellow-wrongdoers in South Africa as their excuse for concentration camps, for banishments, and for stamping out nationality?

A certain indecision marks the opening ceremonies of the Pan-American conference now in session in the City of Mexico. Misunderstanding between the delegates from the United States and those from the Latin countries, and distrust of our preponderancy, are of course the chief dangers to be guarded against. The fervent eulogy of Spain delivered by General Reyes, delegate from Colombia, shows the existence of a solidarity of Latin sentiment which, if we are to achieve results with the South Americans, we must learn to understand, or at least to respect. It is gratifying to learn that the delegates from the United States, differing from certain ill-advised critics at Washington, appear to have appreciated the spirit of General Reyes's meridional eloquence, and congratulated him heartily on his oration. This was well done, and calculated to allay the suspicion that we intend to impose our modes of thought and government upon people trained in another tradition. It is only by maintaining such an attitude of disinterestedness and sympathy that the very modest ends set before the conference can be attained.

That the city of Worcester should choose Senator Hoar to be the formal eulogist of the late President was perhaps natural. That Senator Hoar should decline this office was even more inevitable, for how could the orator who, if he supported Mr. McKinley last fall, had never agreed with him on the most important issue, praise the policy which he had consistently denounced? Accordingly he writes:

> "I think the eulogy on the President should be delivered by some person who was in full accord with him upon the principal political measure of his Administration. I never questioned his absolute sincerity, his devotion to the public welfare, his love of liberty, and his desire to do his duty as God gave him to see it. I was fully in accord with him on the great fiscal measures with which he was identified. But, as you know, I differed with him and his Administration—and my opinion on that subject has been strengthened and not weakened in the lapse of time—in regard to his policy in dealing with the Philippine Islands."

The personal import of these words is less significant than the fact that Senator Hoar believes increasingly that President McKinley's solution of the problem of the Philippines was radically wrong. This leads to the hope that Senator Hoar

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will show his old ardor in urging every measure which looks towards the ultimate independence of these unfortunate islands. The time for recrimination has passed, and the time for repairing a situation rashly incurred has come. All moderate men recognize this fact, and the talk of never hauling down the flag is no longer heard. Towards this constructive work for the Philippines none may more justly contribute than those who have opposed the Government's policy in the past.

The figures just published by the Comptroller of the Currency concerning the organization of national banks under the act of March 14, 1900, will probably be read by certain "currency reformers" with some surprise. Those who spoke of the law as "a very wise measure politically" may not be disappointed, since their object seems to have been merely the passage of some legislation that would stop the mouths of those who were clamoring for action. But there are others who were too overjoyed with the real gain in Treasury methods made by the act to look very narrowly into its sections on banking. They contented themselves with vaguely expecting great results from the provisions regarding small banks and the increase of circulation to the par value of deposited bonds; and they waved aside all protests as the words of those who were seeking better bread than could be made of wheat. To those who thus mildly hoped for the best, the new figures will be something of a shock. True, they are produced with a triumphant air, but no flourish of trumpets can conceal the fact that the law has been a great disappointment in its operation. Since the passage of the act, more than eighteen months have elapsed—a time quite long enough to show what its permanent results are likely to be. And the number of small banks organized has been so great as at first blush to give some color to the claims of success made for the measure. Of 715 new institutions, 486, or more than two-thirds, have capitals of less than $50,000, and among these the 68 that were formerly State institutions of low capitalization. These figures would seem to show not merely that the needs of small towns were being met, but also that the national system had become more attractive to bankers.

Plausible as these inferences appear to be, their inaccuracy is apparent when we turn to consider the figures for circulation and distribution of the banks. It is true that the total circulation of the national banks of the country has been largely added to, increasing by fully 40 per cent. since March 14, 1900. Instead of $254,402,730, it is now $358,830,547. But no conclusions based upon the mere gross increase of circulation can be accepted, though it is their acceptance that is blinding the eyes of bankers and others to the failure of the act and to the need for further legislation. The important fact is that the 715 new institutions have issued only 29 per cent. of the maximum notes to which they may become entitled by the terms of the new law. This is little more than would have been taken out in any event under the bond-deposit requirement. It shows absolutely no increase in the elasticity of the circulation, nor are there other facts in the situation to modify this conclusion. In short, so far as the act of 1900 aimed at flexibility in the currency, it has been a total failure.

In one of his speeches on Saturday last, Justice Jerome alluded to the letter of William C. Whitney in support of Mr. Shepard, and called attention at the same time to the remarkable kindness of Tammany Hall to the Metropolitan street railway. In connection with Mr. Jerome's remarks, attention should be directed to the strange coincidence between Mr. Whitney's letter and the granting of the Elm Street franchise to the Metropolitan Railway Company by the Municipal Assembly. It should be remarked that Elm Street is the only north and south thoroughfare not already controlled by the Metropolitan Company. Its value as a means of shutting out future competition is greater to the latter company than its value as a thoroughfare, since it is the only unoccupied street which could be so used. The franchise ordinance had been "hung up" in the Municipal Assembly for several months, evidently because the Metropolitan Company and Tammany were, for the time being, at odds about something. On Monday week the ordinance was "put through" the Assembly, and on the next day Mr. Whitney wrote a letter in which he said:

"Yes, I am for Mr. Shepard. I have been pretty independent lately, like a great many others. As I retired from politics years ago, my opinions now are only of individual interest. No one, in my opinion, can read Mr. Shepard's Tammany Hall speech and avoid the conviction that a man of rare capacity and breadth of view has arisen to claim public attention. It will be hailed all over the country, in my opinion, by the Democrats as marking the advent of a man capable of the highest order of political leadership."

It could not be considered an unusual thing for a well-known Democrat like Mr. Whitney to "come out" for Mr. Shepard. Many others have done so who have no dealings with franchises for street railways. Yet it is queer that the coming out for Shepard and the coming out of the Elm Street ordinance should have been simultaneous. The coincidence may be explained, if we assume that there has been a movement on foot to reorganize the Democratic party in the State in opposition to Crokerism—something like the Sheehan movement, for example. It is supposable that the Metropolitan Railway was tired of paying blackmail to Tammany, or was inclined to "kick" at the amount levied, and that Mr. Whitney, an influential Democratic leader, was quietly pushing the Sheehan movement without committing himself to it irrevocably, so that it was worth while for Croker to do something for his company—at the expense of the city of New York, of course. If the Elm Street franchise were the consideration for such a trade, the reconciliation might be explained, or half explained. If any further explanation were wanted, it might be found in some remarks made by Mr. Vreeland, the President of the Metropolitan Company, to a convention of railway accountants in this city, a couple of weeks ago, which were published in the New York *Times*, thus:

"There are certain items in your accounts, gentlemen, which, when carried on your books, look very well from the standpoint of a street-railway accountant. But they might be better left out, as they would be hard for the President of the road to get around if called upon before certain public bodies to explain what they meant."

Examination of the text of the tax decision rendered by the Illinois Supreme Court last Thursday does not in all respects warrant the extreme inferences drawn from that ruling at the start. The gist of the matter appears to be as follows: Under existing law, the State Board of Equalization is required "to value and assess against every corporation the fair cash value of the capital stock, including the franchises, over and above the assessed value of the tangible property" of such corporations. How to estimate this "fair cash value" has been a question of some perplexity in Illinois, as it has been in New York State since the Ford Law of 1899, for purposes of taxation, classed corporate franchises as real estate. During many years it would appear that stock-market valuations have been used in Illinois as the general basis of valuation, and that both stock and bonds have been included in levying the tax on capital. A year ago the Board adopted a new set of rules for assessment, by virtue of which they omitted corporation indebtedness from the tax assessment, following this move by fixing a low ratio of assessment on the stock. The matter was carried into the lower courts by citizens, who obtained last May a mandamus requiring adequate assessment of the franchises. This judgment the highest court, before whom the case came on appeal, has now affirmed.

The most interesting part of its decision is that in which the judgment of the lower court is thus confirmed:

"In arriving at such valuation and assessments of the capital stock, including the franchises, of said companies hereinbefore named, said Board, and each member thereof, shall, from the best informa-

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tion obtainable by it and them, ascertain and take into consideration, among other things, as to each corporation as the same was on the first day of April, 1900, the market value, or if no market value, then the fair cash value, of its shares of stock, and the total amount of all its indebtedness except the indebtedness for current expenses, excluding from such expenses the amount paid for the purchase or the improvement of property of said corporations."

The inference rather generally drawn is that this decision will require assessment of corporation franchises by the total stock-market valuation of their stocks and bonds on the day of assessment. Such a procedure would involve so much of injustice that whereas real estate is commonly assessed at a fractional part—usually about two-thirds—of its market valuation, corporate enterprises would be assessed at the full 100 per cent. We are unable to see, however, that the court makes any such arbitrary stipulation.

The accountants' estimates of the probable financial outcome of the Pan-American Exposition may be somewhat discouraging to promoters of similar undertakings in the future. The total loss, it is calculated, will exceed $4,000,000. Not only will the $2,500,000 contributed by stockholders be a total loss, but the contractors will suffer to the extent of $1,000,000, and 20 per cent. of the first-mortgage bonds, as well as the whole of the second-mortgage, will be defaulted. The determination of the contractors to push their claims before the courts, notwithstanding that the provisions of the act incorporating the stockholders specifically exempt them from liability, gives promise that the closing of the Exposition may be succeeded by a long period of litigation. Almost from the very outset the Buffalo Exposition has had to struggle against circumstance. Not only was the railway situation such as practically to prevent the giving of low excursion rates through the summer, but the Fair has had to suffer from various causes which could never have been foreseen. The failure of several Buffalo banks disturbed business, and indirectly injured the prospect of a large attendance, while the methods employed by some institutions in pushing the Exposition securities before the public had an exceedingly injurious effect upon their standing. Worst of all, the assassination of Mr. McKinley not only destroyed the chance of increased profit from the President's visit, but necessitated closing the gates for some days, and, besides, undoubtedly deterred many from visiting Buffalo in the latter part of September and during October.

Gen. Buller's dismissal from the command of the First British Army Corps, after his characteristically stubborn refusal to resign, is the first evidence that the War Office is beginning to take notice of the popular outcry against its mismanagement of the South African campaign. That this action required no small courage in view of Gen. Buller's enormous social influence, is undoubtedly true. It remains to be seen whether it means that a determined effort will now be made to free the War Office from all social entanglements. In its issue of October 12, the *Broad Arrow* cites a case of rank favoritism such as might have been attributable to Alger himself. Two men, one a civilian, "lately a private in the Imperial Yeomanry," the other a militia lieutenant, have been made captains in two of the best dragoon regiments in the army—over the heads, of course, of all the subalterns now in service. As long as this method of doing things prevails, whether in the selection of captains or of army corps commanders, it is idle to expect that the British Army will be an efficient military machine. The selection of Gen. French as Gen. Buller's successor will undoubtedly prove extremely popular, since his conduct has been second to none in South Africa for gallantry and good judgment. In his appointment, at least, the War Office has redeemed its promise to appoint only capable men to the command of the army corps. This it violated when it appointed Gen. Buller.

The latest news from Paris gives ground for hope that the mining troubles in the Montceau-les-Mines district of France may be averted, thanks to the firm measures employed to repress them. It will be remembered that at the Sens Labor Congress, held some months ago, it was agreed to initiate two general strikes in case the demands of the miners were not granted. The first of these strikes, which was to have been undertaken May 1, was given up because of the unfavorable outcome of the miners' referendum vote, which declared against it. This failure rendered the second, which was to occur on November 1, still more threatening; and the fact that the demands of the miners coincided with certain bills introduced by the Socialists in the Chamber, gave a political cast to the proposed strike. The main demands were the eight-hour day and the institution of a system of old-age pensions, to be provided for by the use of the property of the religious houses. These bills were voted down by the Chamber the other day, and the repulse for the moment added new danger to the outlook. The action of the Government on October 23, in warning each member of the Miners' Committee that he would be liable to death for inciting civil war in case the strike should occur, is as courageous as it is unprecedented.

After having acceded to the Emperor's wishes in regard to the tramway across Unter den Linden, the Berlin Municipal Council has again shown its courage by declining to hold a fresh election for Second Burgomaster. It stubbornly holds to its view that the President of the Province of Brandenburg is legally bound to submit the reëlection of Herr Kaufmann to the Emperor. Its refusal to put him aside, since there is no just reason for doing so, will still further embitter the relations between the head of the state and his capital. A more tactful ruler than the Emperor would see the advantages to be gained by letting the citizens have their own way once in a while, and by not exercising all the powers which he claims. How great these powers are, may be seen fro mthe fact that not a paving-stone may be removed without his sanction. No school-house, engine-house, or public hall can be erected without his permission. He once stopped the work on a cemetery gate because the plan had not been submitted to him in person, while the construction of a monument to firemen was recently delayed for the same reason. Moreover, the chief magistrate of Berlin has not the right to audiences with the Emperor, all urban matters being submitted to the latter by the Chief of Police. This official is accountable, not to the citizens, but to the Ministry, and can be removed at the pleasure of the Emperor. He is naturally less fitted to present the needs of the city than is its actual head.

The meeting held on Thursday in Vienna under the auspices of the Association of Austrian Manufacturers revived the discussion of the "American peril" in good earnest. The threatening difficulties between Austria and Germany, due to the pending German tariff bill, were lost sight of in the general dread of American competition, and in the fear that what has already happened in the contest between American and European agriculturists will be repeated in the case of coal and other crude products, and later in that of manufactured goods. Most of the speakers conceded that the outcry for protection to Continental agriculturists had been ineffectual, and that the campaign against American cereals was practically lost. On this ground the grain duties of the new German tariff were condemned as reactionary. It was curious, therefore, that the remedy which had proved ineffectual with cereals should have been unanimously urged with increased force as a bulwark against American manufactured goods, viz., that each European country should endeavor to preserve its home market for its own producers, and that reciprocity arrangements should take the place of the "most-favored-nation" provisions in the commercial systems of the different countries. The scheme for tariff barriers was to be completed by agreement for mutual protection against America.

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THE PAN-AMERICAN CONGRESS.

One way of regarding the Pan-American Congress, now formally opened in the City of Mexico, is as a terrible bogey. It was, in fact, dangled before the bulging eyes of manufacturers in Vienna on Thursday as an imminent part of the awful "American Peril." If American competition is already so severe, what will it be when a Pan-American customs union is arranged? If that is all the Europeans are afraid of, they may rest in peace. Even a cautious little approach to a tariff agreement with Argentina has not been able to run the gauntlet of the Senate, and now, it is announced, that very moderate measure of reciprocity is to be "dropped" in order to placate the wool-growers. We may be sure that the sugar-growers and the tobacco-growers and the hide-producers will be equally in need of conciliation when it comes to allowing South American exports to poach upon their tariff preserves. It is certain that there will not be in Mexico even as much talk about a customs union as there was in Washington ten years ago.

The other way of thinking of the Congress is as a great bore. Nothing practical has ever come out of such gatherings, from the unlucky Congress of Panama down; so why go on holding them merely for the sake of letting loose new floods of unmeaning gush? For this cynical view there is, it must be confessed, some justification. The Pan-American Congress of 1890-91 opened and closed in a great wash of sentiment. Platonic effusiveness almost ran into tears. But when the waters subsided, nothing tangible was discovered standing. The projects for an international bank and an intercontinental railway, for assimilated tariffs and assimilated coinage, were all swept away, and nothing remained but a halting treaty of arbitration, which our own Senate promptly proceeded to send to the tomb of the Capulets.

How expert the South Americans are in the art of elaborate compliment and protestation, really meaning nothing thereby, is shown again by the inaugural speeches at Mexico. Once more we are asked to behold Washington as "the Saxon father," and Bolivar as "the Latin father," extending hands of benediction over the heads of the two blushing and happy continents. Try as they will, our delegates cannot beat the representatives of the southern republics at that sort of thing. But if we ask, in a spirit of political realism, what is the actual attitude—the actual hopes and fears—of South America towards the United States, and what the real wishes and expectations of this country, as it stands facing the nations to the south, we shall have to recognize a few plain if not wholly pleasant facts.

The South Americans are moved only by self-interest. That is natural and right. So are we. Nor are they under any illusions about the United States. The big-brother theory does not impose upon them for an instant. In matters of high politics they have been and are perfectly willing to appeal to and profit by the good offices of this county. Venezuela did it in 1895; the young Brazilian republic did it in 1890-91. But they know perfectly well that our protecting attitude towards them, as against Europe, is simply that of a "contemptuous guardianship," to use the happy phrase of an English writer. They do not suspect us of any immediate ulterior designs, but they know that we have little in common with them, and that we do not consider them our equals in culture or religion or government. And it cannot be doubted by any one who has kept track of the recent trend of South American opinion, that the old lack of confidence in the unselfishness of the United States has been deepened by the events of the past three years. It was inevitable that our war with Spain should have given the Monroe Doctrine a sinister interpretation in the eyes of the South Americans, and led them to entertain a new suspicion of the purity of our motives when we assert again, as we did so devoutly before the Spanish war, that we seek no territory, and disclaim all thought of aggrandizement, at the expense of our neighbors.

The net result cannot but be to make the South Americans exceedingly watchful, while perfectly friendly and polite, in the Congress at Mexico. It will doubtless be some weeks before any important measure is brought up in the general body for debate; all such matters will first be carefully considered in committee. But in all the discussions, private as well as public, it is safe to say that the delegates from below the Rio Grande will steadily and sturdily maintain the interests of their respective republics, and will never dream of yielding, in an expansive moment, any advantage to the United States. American capital they will undoubtedly welcome in the development of their natural resources, but it must run its own risks. American trade they will not oppose, provided Americans do not oppose *their* trade. But any surrender of control over their own tariffs, their own laws and customs, or any abatement of that national sovereignty which they so jealously assert, it is perfectly clear that they will never contemplate.

All this is not to say that we consider the calling of the Congress a mistake, or that we think it foredoomed to failure. No grandiose programme, such as Mr. Blaine sketched in 1890, can be carried out; but very useful, if more modest, purposes can easily be subserved by the Congress. It should promote real friendliness between North and South America. Our delegates will have won a sufficient triumph if, under the sagacious promptings of Secretary Hay, they so bear themselves as to reassure the suspicious South Americans, and convince them that we are now so conscious of undigested empire in our stomachs that we have no desire to swallow more for long years to come. Then there may be some practical achievements in the way of revising the treaty of arbitration; of strengthening the existing treaties of extradition, and doing something in a concerted way to check the passage to and fro of anarchists; as of assimilating postal systems, extending sanitation, and facilitating the interchange of ideas. By not undertaking too much, the Congress may accomplish a great deal, in the ways mentioned, and in others of the non-Jingo sort, so as fully to justify its convening. We should neither be afraid of it nor be disgusted at it, but should look at it as one of the rather cumbrous instruments necessary for political man in order to do a little good.

LESSON OF THE CZOLGOSZ TRIAL.

Before the memory of the wretched Czolgosz rots with his body, it behooves the American people, and especially citizens of New York, to lay to heart the true lesson of his trial and punishment. The vindication of justice in his person has been in every way creditable to the bench and bar of this State. He was swiftly brought to trial. His prosecution was pushed without clamor or malice; the solemn duty of seeing that he enjoyed all his legal rights was undertaken by two members of the Buffalo bar of the highest standing; there was no unseemly wrangling in court; the condemned man was held in close confinement and executed without any sensational display. The whole affair shows what justice is when it is most impressive. It is as if the law, embodied in its sworn ministers in New York, had lifted the sword without passion, and let it fall with the sure and undelayed stroke necessary to make the process of the courts appear dignified, impartial, and as just and unescapable as the finger of God.

From that admirable instance of the march of justice in New York, turn to the chaotic exhibition of courts at cross purposes, and the tricky employment of technicalities to stay the punishment of public criminals, which we have seen going on in this State almost at the same time. Czolgosz died within six weeks of his victim; but Bissert was convicted only to have his sentence indefinitely stayed; Diamond was indicted only to have his trial delayed and transferred; Scannell gets off for the present on a technicality; Glennon's case is held up on some preliminary plea which a judge is supposed to have been passing upon for many weeks. Why the difference? Do the lawyers in Buffalo know nothing about

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the artifices of criminal defence? Could they not travel the State over to get a stay, as Bissert's lawyers did; take an appeal simply for the purpose of delay, or contrive to throw Czolgosz's case into the Federal courts? A New Jersey murderer was kept from the gallows for two years after conviction by successive appeals to the Supreme Court of the United States. One from the State of Washington waited for punishment eight years after his crime. A St. Louis murderer was convicted in 1875; his conviction was upheld in repeated decisions by the Supreme Court of Missouri, but in 1882 was declared invalid by the Supreme Court of the United States.

Such miscarriages of justice are, unhappily, getting to be the rule in the United States. The Czolgosz trial was an exception. Our general looseness and slackness in criminal procedure are undoubtedly on the increase, as Mr. J. H. Webb asserts in his review of the changes of two centuries in American criminal law, and tend, as he confesses, to "encourage a contempt for the law." And the *American Law Review*, speaking of the lamentable practice of indefinitely postponing the punishment of notorious criminals, by an abuse of the right of appeal, said that some of the processes of our courts would "provoke laughter and derision" if they were recounted to an English lawyer, trained in the common law.

It is obvious that it was not the state of the law, but the state of public opinion, which prevented, in the case of Czolgosz, any of the grievous delays and thwartings of justice which we see on every hand. His lawyers could, but would not, dared not, apply for stays and certificates and changes of venue. Judges could, but would not, dared not, stay the execution of sentence upon the President's assassin. His case, too, might have been taken, as Bissert's was, by transparent jugglery, into the Federal courts. Why was none of these things done? Because an alert, a vigilant, a jealous public opinion was behind the trial and behind the court. The people wanted only justice on a miscreant, but they wanted it, wanted it speedily and surely. They got it; and it is safe to say that if an equally aroused and watchful public opinion pressed upon all our courts at all times, we should not see justice baffled so often as we do. The Buffalo bar, with a fine sense of its own responsibility, secured the appointment of two ex-judges as counsel for Czolgosz. If the New York bar were as sensitive concerning its own reputation, it would in similar ways bring its influence to bear to make the process of our courts in this city more orderly and less scandalous. By suitable action the bar could make it impossible for a lawyer to undertake such legal chicanery as was practised in the Bissert case, and still retain an honorable standing among his brethren.

We are not arguing for a restriction of the right of appeal. That subject was debated before the American Bar Association a few years ago, and although a Justice of the Supreme Court urged a limitation of appeals in criminal cases, the prevailing sentiment was that they should not be substantially abridged. There is, however, reason in the demand that the laws of this State should be so amended as to put an end to abuses like those we have had to witness this year in the Bissert case. If a judge 400 miles from New York is not restrained by propriety, he ought to be by statute, from interfering with the orderly processes of the courts in the county of New York. If the law permits such an anomaly as the transfer of the trial of an indicted captain of the New York police to Albany, then the law ought to be changed, unless it wishes to be regarded as "a ass." This whole subject is one which might worthily engage the attention of so practical a Governor as Mr. Odell. We hope that he will recommend to the Legislature such amendments of the code of procedure as may be needful to prevent New York justice from being brought into contempt. Who can deny that both the punitive and the deterrent effects of the execution of Czolgosz illustrate the real intent of the law, just as the delays, the impediments, the legal sparring for time, resorted to by the Tammany lawyers in behalf of their imperilled scoundrels, represent a perversion and defeat of the will of the people as expressed in the criminal code? We must amend our laws when necessary, and so far as feasible; but we must amend our manners, too, and create about bench and bar alike such an atmosphere of public opinion, itself charged with the true spirit of justice, as shall make a trial like that of Czolgosz the normal thing, instead of, as now, only a shining exception.

GROWTH OF THE NEGRO POPULATION.

It has long been known that the negro population of the country was imperfectly enumerated in 1870. It now appears that the census of 1890 was defective in the same respect, although to a less degree. According to the official reports, the number of persons of African descent in the United States, exclusive of Alaska, Hawaii, the Indian Territory, and the Indian reservations, at each of the last four censuses, with the increase during each decade, and the percentage of that increase, was as follows:

Census.	Negro population.	Increase during decade.	Percentage of increase.
1860	4,441,830	803,022	22.07
1870	4,880,009	438,179	9.86
1880	6,580,793	1,700,784	34.85
1890	7,470,040	889,247	13.51
1900	8,803,535	1,333,495	17.85

It is obvious that some of the above figures cannot represent the actual facts. If between 1880 and 1890 the negro population increased at the rate of only 13¼ per cent., it is hard to believe that between 1890 and 1900 the gain was at the rate of more than 17¾ per cent.

Because of their heavy death-rate, the natural increase among the negroes living in cities must be small. In the decade from 1890 to 1900 a somewhat larger proportion of the entire negro population of the country dwelt in cities than was the case between 1880 and 1890. During most of the period between the taking of the eleventh and twelfth censuses times were hard in the South, as elsewhere. Unfavorable economic conditions have their effect upon the increase of even so improvident a race as the negro. It may, therefore, be assumed as reasonably certain that the percentage of negro increase was greater between 1880 and 1890 than it was between 1890 and 1900, instead of smaller, as the census represents it to have been. There can be little question that the error is to be found in the census of 1890. The omissions in it were by no means so great as those which impaired the accuracy of the enumeration of 1870, but they were sufficiently serious.

The Census Act of 1890, and the schedules framed in accordance with it, required the enumerators to ask a great many more questions than had ever been put before. To some of these questions, such as whether a person wholly or partially of African descent was a negro, mulatto, quadroon, or octoroon, it was difficult or impossible to obtain a correct answer, or indeed to obtain any answer at all. The persons inquired of simply did not know what the proportion of white blood in their veins was, and therefore could not tell. There were other questions, such as those which inquired whether any member of the family had suffered during the census year from any chronic or acute disease, which few people liked to answer, and which many people made up their minds they would not answer. The knowledge that such questions were to be asked made the census enumerators' visits very unwelcome ones to many families. At the time the census was taken, partisan feeling, especially in the South, ran high, for the Force Bill was then pending in Congress. All of these circumstances combined to make the work of the enumerators hard. Where they did it conscientiously, they were very imperfectly paid for it. The rates of compensation were based upon the experience of the census of 1880; but in 1880 the enumerators could do at least 50 per cent. more work in the same time. An enumerator who was not of high character was strongly tempted to omit the enumeration of outlying families in his district, or of families the

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information concerning which he could not obtain on his first visit. The omissions were the most serious where the character of the enumerators was the lowest. That is to say, under the conditions which then prevailed, the most imperfect census was likely to be taken in the Black Belts of the South. It is for this reason that while there were omissions in the count of both races, relatively more negroes escaped enumeration than whites.

The following table shows the white population at each census beginning with that of 1860, and also the gross increase of the white population during the decade as given in the census returns. It shows further the total immigration during the decade, and the difference between the total increase and the total immigration, which difference is assumed to be the natural increase. The last column shows the percentage of natural increase for each decade as thus determined:

	White.	Increase.	Immigration.	Natural Increase.	Percentage of Natural Increase.
1860.	26,922,537				
1870.	33.589,377	6,666,840	2.314,824	4,352,016	16.16
1880.	43,402,970	9,813,593	2,812,191	7,001,402	20.84
1890.	54,983,890	11,580,920	5,246,613	6.334.307	14.59
1900.	66,590,725	11,606,835	3,687,564	7,919.271	14.44

The figures for immigration are not always complete, and there are no statistics which show with any approach to accuracy the emigration from the country. Nevertheless, in a rough way the conclusions deducible from the above table may be accepted as at least approximately correct. The table indicates that the rate of natural increase was substantially the same between 1890 and 1900 as it was between 1880 and 1890. It is not probable that this was true. The great business depression extending from 1893 to 1897, the continued concentration of the population in cities, and the lowering of the birth-rate among the native population, must have more than offset whatever diminution in the death-rate resulted from improved sanitation.

The rate of increase between 1880 and 1890 was therefore probably somewhat greater, and that between 1890 and 1900 was somewhat smaller than the census figures would indicate. There seems no reason to doubt that the census of 1880 and the census of 1900 were well taken. Assuming their accuracy, it appears that, during these twenty years, the negro population of the country increased at the rate of 33.77 per cent. Substantially all of this was due to natural increase. During the same period the rate of natural increase among the white population was 32.84 per cent. That is to say, taking the country as a whole, during the last twenty years the net excess of the birth-rate over the death-rate has been substantially the same for the two races. Whatever difference there has been has been in favor of the negroes.

"DISINTEGRATING" TAMMANY.

Mr. Shepard showed in his speech on Wednesday week that Mr. Schurz had touched him on the raw by challenging his contention that it would not be his duty as an honest Mayor to attack Tammany Hall. He attempted to make a shadowy distinction or two between the "unfit" Tammany Commissioners and those of the angel breed, but in general reasserted his former position. This is, that it is not for the Mayor of New York to "disintegrate and destroy the ancient institution known as Tammany Hall." But we maintain that Mr. Shepard, in taking that ground, is palpably confusing both facts and morals.

The first reason he gives for refusing to promise his official antagonism to Tammany is that his sole business as Mayor would be to attend to the welfare of the city. He must keep his eye upon bridges and tunnels and paving; must busy himself about rapid transit and municipal finance; must take long looks ahead, and think of the beautiful and powerful city that is to be. How absurd to suppose that he must divert his attention from these great concerns in order to make war upon "a certain political organization"! We are but quoting Mr. Shepard's language—almost his precise words. But an open fallacy lies in his argument. The general welfare of the city? No Mayor who labors for that can avoid making war upon its deadliest foe —Tammany Hall. Mr. Shepard is fond of legal citations, and we ask him to note what is said in the charter about the duty of the Mayor to "keep himself informed of the doings of the several departments," and to be "vigilant and active in causing the ordinances of the city and laws of the State to be executed and enforced." What we assert is, that no Mayor can obey the law without being hostile to Tammany Hall.

It is not necessary to argue the case —least of all with Mr. Shepard, for he has put into words as biting as those uttered by any speaker or newspaper his own arraignment of Tammany Hall and its insolent boss as defiers of the law and corrupters of morals. It is, therefore, preposterous for him to contend that he will have to be so solicitous of the city's highest good that he cannot fight the power that is sapping the city's very life. Such an attitude is really no different from that of a shepherd who should think he could properly care for his sheep without beating off the wolves. Wolf Croker has his fangs in the city's throat, yet Mr. Shepard is able blandly to argue that his earnest devotion to the city forbids him to pay any attention to the wolf!

His second line of defence is that, even if he wanted to, he could not destroy Tammany Hall. It is so "ancient," so "anchored in the hearts of the people"; and, after every defeat, it "has come back into power stronger than ever." This excuse, however, would be good as against any form of vice or crime, or "the eternal devil" himself. There always has been brigandage, so why try to rescue Miss Stone and punish her kidnappers? They will only be more powerful than ever. Burglars, garroters, embezzlers, card sharpers, procurers are of lineage fully as ancient and as honorable as Tammany Hall, and the silly reformers and officers of the law who try to put them down should learn from Mr. Shepard that their efforts will surely be in vain. Has vice, then, vested rights? If an evil has but flourished long enough to become inveterate, does it thereby become immune? Why did not Mr. Shepard put this strange new philosophy of his into practice when he was fighting John Y. McKane? He might have said then, with as good a face as he urges his apologies for Tammany now, "Ballot-box stuffing is a very ancient practice. Fraudulent elections are at least a hundred years old. Political bosses have been rapacious and defiant since the memory of man runneth not to the contrary. So what is the use of trying to attack crime made venerable with age?" Mr. Shepard did not say that, and what he did was to fling himself into the fight against McKane, nor did he rest until that convicted felon went to his cell in Sing Sing. Mr. Shepard was able then to take his eye off the "city" long enough to catch a rogue.

What he is really confounding now is the existence of a political party with that of a corrupt organization claiming shelter within the party. It is the party that is the "ancient" institution; the Tammany fungus has had to be cut from it again and again. The triumph of Tammany may coincide with the victory of the Democratic party, or it may synchronize with and hasten its defeat. In 1884 Tammany was beaten in the National Convention, beaten in the State, beaten in the city; yet when did the Democratic party ever more gloriously succeed? Tammany has steadily won victories in the very years when the Democratic party in State and nation was sinking into its lowest estate. Yet it is the fluctuating succession of corrupt Tammany bosses, from Isaiah Rynders to Richard Croker, that Mr. Shepard is now willing to identify with the life and principles of the Democratic party.

There is such a thing as disintegrating Tammany Hall, and also such a thing as "integrating" it. We have before expressed, and we do not mean now to retract, our confidence in Mr. Shepard's personal sincerity; but we have frankly to tell him that his greatest peril is that of adding his honored name to the list of respectable men whom Tammany has turned to in a desperate emergency, and whom, after using, it has contemptuously thrown aside as a "squeezed lemon," in Mr. Schurz's phrase. Mr. Shepard does not think he can destroy Tammany;

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but is he willing to strengthen it, and make it a more baleful power than ever? Does he wish to have it said of him that, when Tammany's corrupt and licentious régime was in a way to be overthrown by peaceful and legal measures, he set himself to prolong it to a pass which elsewhere has evoked a Vigilance Committee?

BLOOD-MONEY.

"It does not smell" is what extortioners and murderers have traditionally and defiantly said of the money which came to them through oppression and crime. But the money with which Richard Croker is now attempting to debauch New York, and keep a proud city under his heel, does smell. It smells of blood. Croker is in ample funds for his desperate campaign. On every side he is pouring out money as if from an inexhaustible store. No campaign expense is too large for him; none is too small for him to overlook. He has frankly set out to buy the election. But the money that he pays out has blood upon it.

"Where did you get it?" is an inquiry which Croker regards (when directed to the sources of his personal wealth) as an intrusion upon his "private business." But it is public business in which he is now engaged—the outlay of hundreds of thousands of dollars to corrupt the franchise and to fasten his chains upon our necks. Even the Roman satirist who comforted the monster of avarice by telling him that no man would ask him whence his ill-gotten gains came, did not go so far as to imagine a Croker flinging his bribes about lavishly to degrade a great city, and claiming immunity when asked who put the money in his purse. With Tammany acting as if it were Prince Fortunatus, New York has a right to know where the vast sums come from that are being used for its shame and subjugation; and the more reckless Croker is in announcing his ability to purchase voters as he does dogs and horses, the more pressing is the duty of looking to the mint in which he coins his gold.

Let us put aside the levies which he wrings from his office-holders. They yield to him as they would to a highwayman, loathing him, as many of them do, even while they fear him. These forced contributions from men whose salaries should be wholly their own, though earned in the public service, are an old crying scandal of our politics; and we shall not affirm that Croker is a greater sinner in this respect (except as his opportunity has been greater) than his brother-boss of the Republican party. But what of the bills that come to Croker's hands stained with the life-blood of women and damp with the death-dews of young men? That is the fearful thing about Croker's swollen campaign fund. Much of it represents the price of blood. It is money paid to him for the past privilege of making barter of womanhood, and in the hope of being granted immunity in the future for luring thousands of the city's youth to ruin. It is to Richard Croker that every keeper of a brothel, every pander, every trafficker in woman's honor, every ruffianly betrayer or kidnapper of ignorant and helpless girls, every gambler and sharper and crook and cheat who can beg or steal a dollar is turning it over in order to help prolong his and their reign of infamy in this city. From such tainted sources no single penny is given to promote the campaign of Mr. Low. The money used to further the Fusion ticket is clean. It does not, as so much of Croker's fund does, reek of the pit.

In another way is the Tammany treasury a second Aceldama—a field of blood. It is being drawn upon to perpetuate the conditions in this city which make against the safety of human life. The money paid out to elect the Tammany ticket is as if invested for the direct purpose of taking thousands of lives. "Murder" is what Mr. Jacob Riis bluntly calls the Tammany policy of so administering the city as to let children stifle in foul and illegal tenements, and to put the Health Department in possession of a district leader, with the result of allowing an epidemic of smallpox to overrun the community. Here is something for those great corporations to think of that are so busily engaged these days in making "checks payable to Richard Croker." They may think that they are but submitting to blackmail; or, at the worst, that they are cynically giving a bribe. But they are doing other and far worse than that. They are paying money to strangle children, to destroy women, to entrap the feet of young men in the ways of death, to make life more wretched and base for thousands in this city. Therefore, their money, too, smells of blood; and they are doing their best, these heads of great businesses, these directors of large affairs, who finance Richard Croker as they would a mine or railway—they are doing their best to have New York

> "—taught what conquered cities feel
> By ædiles chosen that they might safely steal."

And what of the indirect responsibility of men who, with no matter what high professions and honorable intentions, allow themselves to profit politically by the blood-money at Croker's disposal? We shall only say that it is a fearful responsibility; and that one further respect in which Mr. Shepard failed at the very beginning of his plan to work through Tammany, was in not seeing to it that the money contributed for his election should be unstained by innocent blood. As it is, he has to sit silent while clergymen tell him, as so many did on Sunday, that he has made himself the candidate of the vilest elements in New York, who are trying to elect him by the vilest means. The Scriptures have terrible things to say of deliberate and open wickedness, but their hottest scorn is reserved for the man who consents with a thief and is "a partaker with adulterers."

RECENT EXCAVATION OF THE TEMPLE OF AEGINA.

ATHENS, October 12, 1901.

Incontestably one of the most important events of the current year in the world of art and archæology is the excavation of the well-known temple of Aegina by Professor Furtwängler during the spring and summer. It had long been felt that the excavations made in and around this temple in 1811, which brought to light the famous gable groups long known and much discussed under the name of the Aeginetan marbles, could not be regarded as definitive. After some slight work done by the Greek Archæological Society in 1893, it was much mooted who should undertake the final excavation. Two considerations made it most fitting that this privilege finally fell to Professor Furtwängler—the general consideration that it would be difficult to find another man who possesses such a comprehensive and minute knowledge of all the remains of ancient Greece, and the particular consideration that he is the Director of the museum in Munich where the statues found in 1811 are lodged, and has recently made from the lumber-room of the museum certain important additions to the two groups.

Of course it was his especial desire and hope to find more statues or fragments which should bring the two groups nearer to completion; but no one understood better than he that there was only one way to secure this result, and this was the thorough clearing of the temple and the area adjacent to it. This is the modern method of excavation. The method of Cockerell and his associates was like fishing in turbid water, while Furtwängler's process was an application of the drag-net which nothing could escape. A striking example of the thoroughness of his process is the fact that six heads, five of which *may* belong to the gable groups (although this, with becoming prudence, is left undecided in the provisional report which has just appeared), were found at the bottom of a deep cistern near the east front of the temple, into which the rain water from the roof was conducted through an aperture in the pavement of the esplanade in front of the temple. Before reaching the cistern, the water had to fall through a rather spacious cave, in the rock floor of which the cistern was cut. It is an interesting fact that the excavators of 1811 had their quarters in this very cave, which at that time had an opening to the north, subsequently closed by accumulation of débris. Cockerell did not think to let down his line under his own bed, where Furtwängler's drag-net secured the prize. Whatever may be the final adjustment of the five heads just mentioned, it is practically certain that two other heads found in the propylon of the temple precinct belonged, one to the east gable and the other to the west. No one can doubt that Professor Furtwängler would like

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to be able to take off some of the heads of the figures in the Munich Museum that were put upon them by the skilful hand of Thorwaldsen, and put in their place the heads just discovered. Athenian gossip has it that an expression of this most natural desire was met by the Greek authorities by a request for the return of the groups now in Munich. Whether request and counter-request have ever been expressed is more than doubtful, and at any rate there is no likelihood that any of these recently discovered heads will ever leave the Athenian Museum, where they now lie. Greece will henceforth remain the jealous custodian of the treasures which she knows how to appreciate.

But to return to the excavations themselves, which I visited two days ago. They have one great charm, viz., that they performed a limited task which it was possible after a few months to present to the world as a finished piece of work. Besides the completely cleared floor of the temple, which makes the interior arrangement plainer than before, the foundation has been cleared down to bed rock. The propylon, the great altar, and several adjacent buildings have been excavated with a care which not only brings its own reward, but has yielded a considerable quantity of small finds from Mycenæan times down well into the fifth century. Into the details of any of these matters I will not go; but there is one most interesting result of the work which cannot be passed by. The temple has, to the surprise of the world, changed its name. The world has for more than half a century regarded nothing as more certain than that this was the Temple of Athena, and has sometimes smiled at the reappearance now and again of the name, "Temple of Jupiter Panhellenius," in certain books which thereby took on an antiquated appearance. It leaked out long ago that this name went out into all the world in consequence of a very shallow fraud practised by some of the younger and more frisky members of the excavation party of 1811 upon some of the more venerable members, which consisted in cutting the words Διὶ Πανελληνίῳ on a block of the cornice to the cella—an impossible place for the name of a temple to be actually cut, to say nothing of the fact that the cutting was done in a ridiculously superficial manner and with no expectation of deceiving. When, however, the fraud had deceived the venerable authorities and had passed along through Europe, the perpetrators of it had not the courage to expose it; but, for the last fifty years, it has been generally understood. The story has been told by Ross in his 'Archaeologische Aufsätze, I., p. 241 ff., and elsewhere.

All books published in late years have called the temple the Temple of Athena. Not only is Athena the central figure in both gable groups, but in the church of St. Athanasius, not so very far from the temple, was seen a lintel block bearing the ancient inscription ὅρος τεμένους Ἀθηναίας. Then another stone was found with the same inscription, "a little farther off," Ross says. It is true that voices were from time to time raised against the validity of these grounds for the name. Prof. Paul Wolters, in the *Mittheilungen des Deutschen Archaeologischen Instituts in Athen*, 1889 (p. 177 ff.), pointed out the fact that Ross had been over-zealous in saying that the first of these inscriptions was found only a quarter of an hour from the temple. It is, in fact, over an hour away; and the second one, being quite near the city, is over an hour and a half distant from the temple. Quite recently another such boundary-stone has been found in the sea near the city. It ought to have been recognized as practically impossible that so many rather heavy stones should be carried so far, and their provenance ought to have been sought elsewhere than at the temple under discussion. In the *American Journal of Archæology*, 1893, Prof. F. B. Tarbell and Mr. W. N. Bates collected all the evidence available as to the connection of the subjects of the sculptures on various temples with the divinity worshipped in the temples. They appear to have had in mind some question in regard to the Aeginetan sculptures, as appears in a note on p. 19. Professor Furtwängler himself, in his 'Beschreibung der Glyptothek König Ludwig I. zu München,' 1900 (pp. 86 and 157), had already declared that the presence of Athena in both gables was no proof that the temple was hers. He then thought it a temple of Herakles. But no serious and strenuous objection had been made to the current name; doubts only had been expressed, when all at once, with the recent excavations, the certainty came with a blaze of proof that the temple belonged to another divinity almost purely local and much inferior to the great goddess Athena.

First came three fragments of inscriptions, all of which seemed to contain parts of the name Aphæa, and then came a large block nearly six feet long and a foot high, with an inscription of three lines, saying: "When Cleœtas was priest, the house was built to Aphæa. The altar and the ivory [*i. e.*, presumably, the wooden cultus statue adorned with ivory], were made in addition, and a wall built around." This inscription is in archaic Doric, and must be put well back into the sixth century. It cannot refer to the present temple, because three of the four fragments of the block containing it were found in the débris used for filling, at a considerable depth below the surface of the platform east of the temple, and down near the bed-rock. The present temple, then, replaced at some time an older one of the same divinity on the same spot. Pausanias (ii., 30, 3) says that the Temple of Aphæa had inscribed on it a song of Pindar. Furtwängler naturally supposed that there was some special occasion for this, and what more fitting occasion could be found than the dedication of the temple itself, which replaced with pomp an older one antiquated or destroyed? The time of dedication would then probably be when Pindar was at the height of his popularity.

The new name of the temple, based as it is not only upon the complete inscription, but on the fragments of three others, will probably stand secure. One of the blocks is too large to have been transported very far. The only rift in the otherwise secure foundation is the fact that Pausanias, in mentioning the Temple of Aphæa, says: "It is on the way as you go up to the mountain of Zeus Panhellenios." It is true that this mountain of Zeus Panhellenios was once supposed to be the height on which stands the temple under discussion; but there is little room for doubt that it is the peak now known as the ὄρος, near the south point of the island, which dominates the whole island and affords a view not easily forgotten. It is, in fact, perfectly clear that Theophrastus means this mountain when, in discussing the signs of storms, he says that clouds settling upon Zeus Hellenios are a sign of rain! This very peak is used to-day in the same way as a weather gauge. Taking the ὄρος as something fixed, one has generally believed, on the authority of Pausanias, that the ruined chapel of the Archangel Michael, which stands on an imposing and finely constructed terrace, near the bottom of the northern slope of the ὄρος, occupies the site of the Temple of Aphæa. Several ancient inscriptions have been found there; none, however, giving the name of a divinity. It might be well to rummage a little more among the blocks which cover the ground here. Some decisive inscription might be the reward. But, as the case now stands, it is easier to believe that Pausanias was a "betrogener Betrüger" than that Furtwängler is in error in his identification of the Temple of Aphæa.

In the interest, however, of a complete statement of facts, I may say that Professor Furtwängler is a little unjust as to the fitness of this place to be the location of the Temple of Aphæa. In citing the passage in the narrative of Antoninus Liberalis which describes the flight of Aphæa—who is a sort of double of Dictynna—from Crete, her touching at Aegina, and her taking refuge in a grove in which her temple was afterwards set up, he denies the possibility of this region near the foot of the ὄρος ever having been a grove, calling it an "öde Felswüste." Two visits to the spot have left me with the opposite conviction. Several fig trees flourish on and about the terrace; and there is even now considerable humus there, in spite of a long process of denudation and washing-down of the soil to a slightly lower level since classical times. There is, moreover, a large cistern, or well rather, near the upper edge of the terrace, which seems fed by a perennial source at the bottom. I have, at any rate, in two different years—1894 and 1901—seen crowds of women washing there in September, before the fall rains. I set this down as something to be taken into consideration in case there should be a change of the kaleidoscope, and new possibilities at present not in sight should present themselves.

The new discovery will hardly contribute anything toward fixing more exactly the date of the famous temple. Furtwängler, to be sure, suggests a very plausible and extremely interesting connection of the building of the temple with an episode in the battle of Salamis. Herodotus, after giving the Athenian account of the beginning of the battle, adds: "The Aeginetans tell another story, and say that the ship which had gone over to Aegina to fetch the Aeacidæ brought on the battle, and that, furthermore, the phantom of a woman appeared to them, and, when she had appeared, she reviled them, saying, 'Wretches, how long are you going to keep backing water?' and urged them on, so that the whole Greek line heard her voice." Furtwängler accepts a suggestion of Salomon Reinach that this phantom woman was, according to the belief of the Aeginetans, none other than the goddess Aphæa, who looked down from the height on which her temple stood, and, beholding her island devotees in the throes of a dangerous crisis,

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inspired them to the deeds of valor which made their name resound throughout Hellas. Herodotus, even with his Athenian leanings, has to record the fact that the Aeginetans outstripped the Athenians in this battle, according to the general judgment. What an occasion this afforded them to devote their treasure to the erection of a fine temple to the goddess who had led them on that day to immortal glory! Well might they call in Pindar to add lustre to the offering—Pindar, who, in his fourth Isthmian ode, also showed his predilection to praise the island whose "strong tower was high valor."

This most attractive weaving of history and myth to form a setting for the date of the temple will not, however, remove entirely a doubt created in the minds of many by the solid presence of the gable groups themselves, which make such an impression of antiquity. It is difficult to believe that, long after the group of Athena battling with the giants in the gable of the Old Athena temple on the Athenian Acropolis had been produced, with its tremendous life and energy, sculptors could have gone on making such stiff, expressionless figures at a place so hard by. The newly discovered sculptures at Delphi seem rather to increase this difficulty. Sculpture was beginning to throb with life everywhere in Greece. Could Aegina have been in an eddy? But it must be said that Furtwängler, who is a master in the field of sculpture, has long held to about this date, and is not being carried away by any fancy generated by his new discovery. After years of discussion, while there is no perfect agreement as to the date of the Aegina sculptures, the limits have been drawn more closely. It is, after all, a question of a decade or so. The time when Leake and Cockerell dated the temple at 600 B. C. is long past.

RUFUS B. RICHARDSON.

INTERNATIONAL ART IN LONDON.

LONDON, October, 1901.

The autumn season in London probably never began in such gloom for artists. The war in South Africa has entered upon its third year—the war that was to have been carried to a triumphant end in a month's time; every one knows that the income tax, already enormous, will be very much bigger before the next payment is called for—the more pessimistic, indeed, insisting that it will go up to half a crown in the pound before it can begin to go down again; the papers are full of the gradual decline of British trade and commerce; Lord Rosebery has just been calling upon the British people to awake and borrow a little energy from Americans, or there is no telling whither their apathy may lead. Altogether, the financial outlook is anything but brilliant, and, in moments of national economy, it is the artist who suffers first. Bread and meat must be paid for before pictures can be bought. While from Venice, from Dresden, from Vevey reports come of the wonderful success of the summer's big exhibitions—success, that is, from the point of view of sales—in the London galleries that pleasant little mark "Sold" on a picture has long been the exception. The Academy itself, the stronghold of popular art, is said to have suffered, and when the sales at the Academy diminish, the other galleries might as well lock their doors and put up their shutters.

It is all the more encouraging, therefore, to find that a society of artists upon whom the future of the art of Great Britain may be said in a large measure to depend, should have bravely faced the period of depression and chosen the present moment to open its third exhibition, after an interval of a little more than two years. It is unusual in London for any group of artists to allow such a long time to pass without giving signs of life—the risk would be too great; and, I think, in the conservative or Academic camp there was every hope that the last had been heard of the International Society of Sculptors, Painters, and Gravers. Its first two shows had proved it a force to be reckoned with, a formidable rival to Academies and Institutes and British Artists, and its disappearance would not have been regretted. But now it is once more to the fore, its activity and excellence unimpaired, its standard as high as ever, its example as subversive of all the old, long-established superstitions and traditions of British art.

I have spoken at length of the aims and constitution of the Society because it is in this way I can best explain its importance and the reason why so much is expected of its influence. As for the exhibition that has recently opened, it has the very virtues that in most London exhibitions are conspicuous by their absence. The pictures are intelligently hung. In the two previous shows there was the further advantage of unusually fine rooms. Prince's Skating Rink at Knightsbridge had been transformed for the summer into a picture gallery, large and spacious, and decorated for the purpose by the Society itself. Now, for various reasons, Knightsbridge has been abandoned for much more convenient Piccadilly, and temporary quarters have been found in the Institute, where the galleries are pleasant, but limited in space, and decorated according to unfortunate Institute ideals. But the arrangement of the walls is harmonious; there is no crowding, each picture has its necessary margin of space, while the low velarium concentrates the light just where it is wanted. Mr. Whistler so seldom exhibits that a row of small pictures by him is an event. They are marines; a little street scene, all "gold and orange"; a most beautiful study of the nude, "Phryne the Superb"; notes of color, suave, rhythmical, exquisite. Here you have proof positive that the success of a picture in an exhibition is not in proportion to the size of the canvas or paper and the sensation of the subject. These little masterpieces hold you when you would pass with indifference the huge *machine* at the Salon or the rapid "picture of the year" at the Academy.

Exhibitions without end open and close in London, and call for no special mention. But not only for what the International shows, but for what it means, does it deserve careful consideration; and American artists have a particular reason to be interested in its welfare. In England or Great Britain, there has never been any definite well-organized movement of "Secession," as in Paris or Munich or Vienna. I have heard abroad the International called the "London Secession," but this word really does not describe it. Its members do not "secede" from anything; it represents no one group, it is no association merely of the younger men still in the hot rebellion of youth; it gives expression to no revolutionary tendencies or brand-new doctrines and theories; it is not Mystic, or Symbolist, or Pointillist, or Impressionist, or Divisionist; it has not even invented a name by which to electrify or puzzle a world on the lookout for sensations. It is merely a society of artists drawn together by their love of art and their desire to show the best work that is being done nowadays, and to arrange it in such fashion that it can be seen to the best advantage. But whoever has been forced by duty to make the rounds of the chief galleries in England and on the Continent during the last fifteen or twenty years will know what a novelty this is. The means by which these ends are realized are simple—so simple, the wonder is they have not been thought of before by any association of British artists. In the first place, the President has been chosen for his distinction as an artist, and not solely for social or other reasons; a society over which Mr. Whistler presides could not but be distinguished. In the second place, the members—divided into Executive Members, Honorary Members, and Associates—have also been elected, not because they are "good fellows," or popular with the public, but because of their merit as artists. And, in the third place, narrow insular and national barriers have been disregarded, and the effort is made to include all the men who are doing original work in any part of the world. It may be said that, in this respect, the Academy is liberal enough; are not two Americans, a German, and a Dutchman counted among the full-fledged Academicians? But all these painters live in England, and have identified themselves with English art and English life, even when they have not been officially nationalized. Outside its own ranks the Academy is indifferent enough to the foreigner. Take the case of Americans; Mr. Millet and Mrs. Merritt are fairly regular contributors, but I have had to point out before now the shameful sort of treatment accorded to only too many others who have ventured to exhibit. With the International, however, the tables are turned: The President is an American; so is one of the Executive Members or Council—Mr. Pennell; and Mr. St. Gaudens, Mr. MacMonnies, Mr. Chase, Mr. Alexander, and Mr. Melchers are among the Honorary Members; Mr. Humphreys Johnston, Mr. Muhrman, Mr. Mura, among the Associates; while, this year, Mr. Lungren and Mr. McLure Hamilton also are exhibitors. This is why I think the Society and its exhibitions of special interest to Americans. It may, again, be said that, as Academicians are not admitted to the Executive, therefore the Society must be in direct and deliberate opposition to the Academy. But it is well known that, with a few notable exceptions, most of the eminent British artists of to-day—including the large and accomplished Glasgow group—have little favor shown them at Burlington House. And, again, the ends of the International Society would be at once defeated were it brought under Academical influence.

The Glasgow men are naturally to the fore; it is their only chance to make a good showing in London, and one of their num-

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ber, Mr. Lavery, is Vice-President of the Society. His portraits and Mr. Walton's and Mr. Henry's are, as a rule, excellent. Indeed, the work of this group usually has character and sometimes charm, though they may not have fulfilled all the expectations they aroused at the outset of their career, and though several now seem in danger of falling victims to "pattern," so determined are they to be decorative in their pictures. Mr. Hornel, for one, reduces his landscapes to a blinding, kaleidoscopic mosaic of color. Mr. Sauter, the Honorary Secretary of the Society, is also prominent among the portrait-painters, and the landscape men are chiefly Mr. Muhrman and Mr. Priestman, who are always to be studied even when, as now, they are scarcely up to their own high level.

I have said who are the Americans. France is represented by M. Besnard, M. Cottet, M. Milcendeau; Germany, by Franz Stuck and Klinger; Holland, by Mathys and James Maris, Breitner, and Bauer; Belgium by Khnopff and Claus; Italy by Fragiacomo and Segantini. A fine series of paintings and drawings by Segantini has, indeed, been made one of the chief features of the collection. Two Canadians also send: Mr. Homer Watson, well known, I believe, in New York, and Mr. Morrice, new as an exhibitor in London, but whose work here, as in the Champ-de-Mars Salon, reveals a sense of style and color that promises much. This short summary will at least give an idea of the scope of the exhibition.

The black-and-white, though not so representative as in previous shows, is good, M. Lepère, Mr. Pennell, and Mr. E. J. Sullivan being the chief exhibitors in this section. And if there is but little sculpture, that little is of interest; Meunier, Troubetzkoy, and Klinger, the most notable contributors.

I do not pretend that the show is faultless—that would be absurd. If I were writing at length, I might compare it, not always to its advantage, with the first two shows. I might call attention to more than one disappointment or failure. The millennium will have come before a society of artists can reach that stage of perfection where it is beyond reproach. But, as a rule, the work that does not command praise at least challenges criticism. Comparatively little commonplace has crept in. There is no painting or drawing or modelling down to the popular taste, and it is better to err on the side of eccentricity than of sentiment. The disappointment, as a rule, is when the artist falls below the standard he has set; the failure, when he has not been able to solve the problem his picture or drawing or statue meant to him. That there should be a standard, and a high one, that there should be a problem, and an artistic one, is the great thing. N. N.

Notes.

Mr. R. B. Marston, the veteran London publisher, has consented to act as Honorary Secretary and Honorary Treasurer of a fund to enable a memorial of the late R. D. Blackmore to be placed in Exeter Cathedral. He expects, if the sum raised should be more than sufficient thus to honor the author of 'Lorna Doone,' to invest the surplus for the benefit of the Authors' Benevolent Fund. A copy of Mr. Marston's circular will be sent to any one addressing him at St. Dunstan's House, Fetter Lane, London, E. C. Messrs. Hall Caine, Thomas Hardy, Kipling, R. E. Prothero, and W. Clark Russell are of the Honorary Committee of the fund.

A beginning has been made in Massachusetts, by the Women's Auxiliary of the Civil-Service-Reform Association of that State, of an attempt to reach the minds of youth in the high schools on the subject of public office as a public trust. A pamphlet on the merit system versus the spoils system, written by Mr. Edward Carey, has been widely circulated by the Auxiliary, which is ready to send copies to high schools outside of Massachusetts. Application should be made to Miss Elizabeth Foster, No. 44 Fairfield Street, Boston.

The interesting announcement is made that Houghton, Mifflin & Co. are to be the American agents for the sale of the publications of the famous Plantin-Moretus Museum at Antwerp. The Administrative Board decided last year "to print from the copper and wood cuts in the Museum a limited number of proofs, which should be offered for sale to art lovers and connoisseurs." Among these are engravings by Lucas van Leyden (1521), Crispin van de Passe (1588, after designs by Martin de Vos), John Wiericx (1585-1590); frontispieces and portraits after designs by Rubens, whose relations to the great printing-house were very close; 'Emblemata Hadriani Junii,' by various hands; fifteen etchings and seven engravings on copper by the late Baron Leys, the eminent Belgian painter of the last century, whose plates have been bought by the Museum; besides several large prints from the original plates—after Van Dyck's "Christ on the Cross," the portrait of Christopher Plantin, etc. These books and prints may be seen at the new offices of the firm, at No. 85 Fifth Avenue.

Mr. E. A. Crawley, of Bradfield College, Berkshire, England, has turned FitzGerald's 'Rubáiyát of Omar Khayyám' into Greek elegiacs, which will be issued early in December in a limited bilingual edition printed at the Merrymount Press for Mr. Nathan Haskell Dole, of Jamaica Plain, Boston. This edition is specially authorized by Dr. William Aldis Wright of Cambridge, FitzGerald's executor.

Immediately forthcoming from Henry Holt & Co. are Prof. Henry A. Beers's 'History of English Romanticism in the Nineteenth Century,' and 'American Political History to the Death of Lincoln,' popularly told by Viola A. Conklin.

'Famous Sayings of Famous Americans,' compiled by James J. Neville, will be issued by Frederick H. Johnson, Syracuse, N. Y.

'China in Convulsion,' by Dr. Arthur H. Smith, and 'Culture and Restraint,' by the Rev. Hugh Black, are in the press of Fleming H. Revell Co.

Still another book on China, 'The War of Civilization,' by George Lynch, is to be published immediately by Longmans, Green & Co.

A romantic novel founded on the life of François Villon, and entitled 'If I Were King,' by Justin Huntly McCarthy, will shortly be published by R. H. Russell.

Richardson's 'Pamela,' 'Clarissa Harlowe,' and 'Sir Charles Grandison,' in twenty small crown octavo volumes, will be issued by Chapman & Hall in London and J. B. Lippincott Co. in Philadelphia. A portrait of Richardson, and 78 illustrations after Stothard and E. F. Burney, will adorn this set.

Macmillan Co. have transferred to their "Handbooks of Archæology" Lanciani's 'Destruction of Ancient Rome,' already noticed in these columns.

Among the reprints of the week none is more captivating than the twelve volumes of the Temple edition of the Works of the Brontës (London: Dent; New York: Macmillan), in olive-green binding brightly stamped in gilt. Etched frontispieces embrace portrait, historic scene, and imaginative illustration of the story. One volume is given up to the verse of the three sisters, with Cottage Poems by the Rev. Patrick Brontë. The hand will not tire of these light books, and the eye will not be strained by the text.

Mr. Edwin Atlee Barber's 'Pottery and Porcelain of the United States' (Putnams) was reviewed by us seven years ago, with acknowledgment of its merit particularly on the historical side. It has not been superseded, and is not likely to be, and is now issued in a second edition with nearly a hundred additional pages and a liberal continuation of the illustrations. Mr. Barber offers much fresh and valuable information about the earlier potteries, while his account of developments since 1893 (and very important they are) fills fifty pages. The public that buys, as well as that which collects, has now a book of reference brought up to date. The author is less critic than antiquarian and chronicler, but his interest in his subject is, like his industry, most commendable. A curious instance of the sociological significance of forms of pottery is given in the supplement at p. 435, where is depicted a ring-shaped cider bottle, meant to be carried afield on the owner's arm.

Mr. Hamilton W. Mabie's 'William Shakspere: Poet, Dramatist, and Man' comes to us from Macmillan in a third edition, with all the illustrations, with some corrections, and in a cheaper, but still handsome form. At the same time his excellent early version of 'Norse Stories,' which we noticed last winter, is put forth anew by Dodd, Mead & Co., in elegant typography, with pale-tinted scroll borders and with gayly colored full-page designs by George Wright.

Nearly sixty years have elapsed since the inception of John Henry Newman's 'Lives of the English Saints,' and whether hagiology has meanwhile risen in repute, or whether we can all enjoy these biographies as pure literature, viewing as poetry what we decline to accept as history, as the Rev. Arthur W. Hutton suggests, he has put them to press once more in a handsome set of six volumes, garnished with portraits of twelve of the contributors (of whom only one survives, some being under twenty-five at the time, and most being on either side of thirty), and a list as nearly perfect as can be made of the several attributions. This edition bears in London the imprint of Freemantle and in Philadelphia of Lippincott. Mark Pattison, J. A. Froude, Faber, Oakeley, and Mozley are among the portraits mentioned.

In noticing the latest addition to the "Versailles Historical Series" (Boston: Hardy, Pratt & Co.), which comprises three

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volumes of Madame de Motteville's Memoirs, translated by Miss Wormeley, we have pleasure in observing that the work is in many particulars more accurate than in some of the preceding volumes. The elementary error of mistaking "esprit" for *intelligence* (when the context shows that *wit* is meant) may be found in i., 202, and ii., 57. Still, the translator keeps even pace with the not very stimulating original, and practises a fair amount of judicious ex cision here and there. Sainte-Beuve's "Causerie" serves as an introduction.

Superficially considered, there might appear to be a happy thought in the compilation, 'Romantic Castles and Palaces as Seen and Described by Famous Writers, Edited and Translated by Esther Singleton' (Dodd, Mead & Co.). For mere description, Gautier and Alexander Dumas, Hawthorne, William Howitt, Mr. and Mrs. S. C. Hall, Leigh Hunt and Walter Scott (to cite the less recent) may answer; but wherever the historical details of a guide-book enter in, the age of the selection counts, and many of the details here to be found must be as untrustworthy as they are unreadable. On the other hand, we have passages from J. R. Green, J. A. Symonds, Grant Allen, Pierre Loti, E. De Amicis, C. Yriarte, and other of our contemporaries. There are also nearly fifty excellent photographic illustrations. The proof-reading (or is it the scholarship?) leaves something to be desired. "Farinata des Uberti" occurs on page 42, for example; "Françoise de'Mercœur" on page 174; "Catherine de Medicis" on page 174, "de'Medicis" on page 101, "de'Medici" on pages 175, 177; "de los Arraynes" on page 79; "Maréchale de Chaumont, to do honor to his uncle," on page 213.

Under the title 'The Education of the American Citizen,' President Hadley has reprinted a number of his addresses and essays (Charles Scribner's Sons). The views here presented are too well known to require commendation to our readers. President Hadley's theory is "that the real test of an educational system lies in its training of the citizen to meet political exigencies," and he is fond of dwelling on the potency of public opinion in solving political problems. While the manner in which the thought is presented is not brilliant, its substance is excellent. Occasionally, the desire to be fair and conciliatory produces some indefiniteness of assertion, and optimism takes the place of argument. But the head of a great university must nowadays be a diplomatist and beware of too much zeal. The most scholarly paper in the collection, on "Ethics as a Political Science," appeared nine years ago, and is perhaps more truly educational than the recent addresses, which necessarily lack the incisiveness of arguments meant for students.

The legal position of women in this country is examined by Mr. G. J. Bayles under the title 'Woman and the Law' (The Century Co.). The book is intended for women —as women, not as lawyers—and will undoubtedly be of interest to the growing class of self-sufficient members of the sometime "weaker sex." As Prof. I. F. Russell says in his introduction, in this country woman labors under no legal disabilities, and is in some respects favored by the law. Not being ordinarily a voter or office-holder, her public relations are of moderate importance; but her property relations are no longer insignificant, while the domestic relations are of at least as much consequence to her as to man. Hence the author of this book dwells mainly on such subjects as marriage and divorce, the guardianship of children, marriage settlements, dower, separate estates, and the conduct of their affairs by women. His presentation of the law is necessarily concise, but is clear and neat, and will meet the wants of those who desire to take a general view of the subject.

To sketch in a single volume the history of both critical and creative literature in France during so strikingly productive a period as the last twenty-five or thirty years, might at first blush appear a mere *tour de force*. In M. Georges Pellissier's hands the result turns out to be a most valuable general guide for popular purposes. It is, indeed, to France that one must look for such an admirable summary of the subject as 'Le Mouvement Littéraire Contemporain' (Paris: Plon - Nourrit). This work, which takes up novels, plays, poetry, criticism, and history, combines the treatment of all essential elements in these various *genres* with comprehensiveness and lightness of touch. Its one striking want is the almost complete absence of dates, which might easily find a place in footnotes. Doubtless, many readers may feel disposed to take issue with some of M. Pellissier's conclusions, notably with his charity towards recent experiments in the rejuvenation of French prosody. But the distinguished critic is at all events true to his literary faith, which consists mainly in counselling a return to the method of Sainte-Beuve, in preference to either Taine or Brunetière.

Two more numbers of the 'Catalogo Generale della Libreria Italiana — 1847-1899' (Milan: Hoepli; New York: Lemcke & Buechner) carry the alphabet on into D. Among the more striking lists of works are those, in politics and sociology, of the statesman Colajanni; in letters, of D'Annunzio, whose beginnings were poetical—'In Memoriam: Versi' (1880); 'Canto Novo' (1882); 'Intermezzo di Rime' (1884), and so on. Massimo D'Azeglio editions fill three-quarters of a page, and range, in the case of his 'Ettore Fieramosca,' from 1847 to 1899; of his 'Nicolò de' Lapi' from 1847 to 1894—a very even running for these masterpieces. The Dante entries (that is, of works on him) are surprisingly small for the half century; a mere handful. Dino Compagni's 'Chronicle' has been reprinted six times—in 1847, 1852, 1858, and, after a decade's pause, 1869, 1870, 1872. Darwin's 'Origin of Species' was not translated till 1865; his 'Journal of a Voyage' till 1872. Fenimore Cooper's vogue in Italy in this later period dates from 1858 with 'The Bravo.' 'Robinson Crusoe' has been issued from 1854 to 1898, but De Foe remains to Italians a man of one book. It is pleasant to find here Cowper's lines on his mother's picture translated (1882).

The October issue of the Historical Collections of the Essex Institute (Salem, Mass.) contains a paper by the President of that society entitled "What Washington Thought of a Third Term." It will well repay reading, however little the present generation takes Washington's opinions and political example to heart. It is conclusive as to his being in favor of the republic's right to employ a public servant as long as its advantage was consulted by his continuance in office. In his correspondence with his friends and in his Farewell Address a scruple against the principle of a third term found no place among his reasons for seeking retirement; nor did he avoid a second term on the ground of its being opposed to public policy, as he might have done.

The conditions of South African trade are reviewed in the Consular Reports for October by Consul-General Stowe; its growing importance to us being indicated by the fact that only nine other countries take more of our products. He refers to the universal use in Cape Colony of our kitchen ware, furniture, and agricultural implements, and quotes Lord Roberts's commendation of the American buckboard wagon as "superior to any other pattern of either Cape or English manufacture." Another proof of the increase of our interests in the Old World is the establishment in Harput of an agency for the exhibition of American goods, chiefly agricultural machinery. To promote this end, a model farm has been started in the vicinity which is "cultivated exclusively by American machinery," and the Governor-General of the province has granted the agency the use of a large tract of arable land near the capital "on which the operations of ploughing, sowing, cultivating, and harvesting the standard crops of the country can be readily followed and studied." Among other subjects treated in the Reports is Japanese trade, the total volume of our commerce last year having exceeded fifty-seven million dollars. Attention is called to the gradual abolition of domestic slavery in Egypt, 3,450 manumission papers having been granted in the last six years.

Kang-Wha, the fortified island lying at the mouth of the Han River, the largest in Korea, has hitherto been the asylum of each refugee native dynasty, and frequently the capital of the country at months at a time, during the many invasions of that oft-conquered country. Modern methods of warfare have made the island less valuable as a stronghold, but the duplicate records of the Government are still kept there in a fortified monastery, which French infantry in 1866 vainly endeavored to storm. These archives are in the care of Buddhist monks, who are subsidized and act as a clerical militia. An account of Kang-Wha, historical and descriptive, is given by the Rev. M. N. Trollope in volume ii. of the Transactions of the Korea Asiatic Society. Rich in ancient masonry, fortifications, and monuments, the island now boasts of two comparatively new tablets standing on the headland above the forts stormed by the Americans under Lieut.-Commander (now Rear-Admiral) W. S. Schley, in 1871. They were erected by the people of Kang-Wha in grateful memory of their fellows who died for their country. One of them gives the names of four officers and forty-nine Koreans, rank and file slain (compare the "three hundred and fifty" of the official report to our Secretary of the Navy). Perhaps the smaller number were from Kang-Wha only. A similar tablet within the monastery enclosure recalls the French expedition of 1866. "The Spirit Worship of the Koreans" is treated in a scholarly paper by the Rev. George Heber Jones. While Confucianism is the creed of the lettered classes, and Buddh-

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ism of the women, ministering thus to the social side of life, some of the monasteries also being subsidized, Shamanism is the prevailing cult, the female sorcerers everywhere having amazing influence. Happily, Korean spirits cease all activity at cock-crow, for at the first blast of chanticleer they are unable to travel.

The claims of geographical research were urged by Dr. R. H. Mill in his address before the British Association at Glasgow. Referring to the unsatisfactory position of the science in Great Britain, both in the general educational scheme and in the Government departments, he stated that "there is still one important colonial boundary entirely undelimited in a region somewhat difficult of access and still little known, where gold fields will probably be found or reported before long, and where a very serious international question may suddenly arise." He also called attention to the undesirable condition of the laws in regard to water-rights, and the absence of laws as to the utilization of wind—a dangerous situation in view of the growing importance of wind- and water-power, and the transport of that power by electricity.

The American Philosophical Society of Philadelphia has, after 158 years of existence (Franklin called it into being), resolved to supplement its semi-monthly meetings with at least one general meeting annually, beginning in Easter week of 1902. Papers to be presented by or through members should be in the Secretaries' hands not later than February 15.

—The writers in the "Highways and Byways Series" (Macmillan) have all, so far, succeeded in producing guide-books so glorified with anecdote, literary reminiscence, and, above all, excellent illustration, that they appeal to several classes of readers. Many who will never visit the Lake District will find Mr. A. G. Bradley's little book fascinating; and certainly it is one that no traveller in the north of England should fail to take with him. Mr. Bradley explored the country from Kendal to Gretna Green, and down to St. Bees on the Irish Sea, riding a bicycle for the most part, and asserting the supreme advantage of this method of progression while he admits that smooth roads are none too common in the Lake Country. His experiences will tempt many cyclists to whom a cycle in that region may have seemed an anomaly, to abandon where possible the lumbering coach of the tourist and loiter with their wheels in the less-known byways. Mr. Bradley's pages are full of memoirs of Shelley, De Quincey, and the "Lakers"; but some of us have had enough of anecdotes of Wordsworth, Southey, and Hartley Coleridge, and we have read with more interest the curious and gruesome tales connected with the remote granges and ruined halls that cluster in the valleys little visited, even now, by tourists. Mr. Pennell's illustrations are as good as ever, though here and there the reproduction is faulty. The map of Mr. Bradley's travels is valuable; for though one usually ends by developing one's own route, in such a pilgrimage, another's experiences form an interesting basis if only of comparison.

—'Arnold's Expedition to Quebec' (Macmillan) is a posthumous work of John Codman, 2d, who died in 1897 at the age of thirty-four. His last years were spent in preparing this book, and, although he was unable to give it a final revision, it was practically completed at the time of his death. As an example of the effort bestowed upon it, we may say that Mr. Codman followed the course of Arnold's advance, either on foot or by canoe, for nearly the whole of the way. No preceding writer on the subject had taken the pains to do this, and the result is seen in a much firmer grasp of topographical detail. The suffering of the troops must be the main theme of any narrative which describes this expedition, and no one can properly realize what they endured unless he has been through the country between Dead River and Lake Megantic. Mr. Codman thought a great mistake was made in taking bateaux. "Rafts could have been built rapidly on the shores of many of the ponds by an advance party, and used to ferry the troops across as fast as they arrived, while a large enough amount of ammunition to have answered every purpose could have been thus transported." The cause of this blunder is traceable less to sheer stupidity than to false information about the region. Arnold in one of his letters says: "We have been deceived in every account of our route." The description of the fighting before Quebec is very good, and does justice to Carleton's humanity as well as to the bravery of the colonists. We must also point out that the book is in no sense a panegyric of Arnold, composed with a view to mitigating judgment of his later career. The General's courage and determination are fully illustrated, but, after all, the real hero is the common soldier. After quoting a devout passage from the journal of Private Abner Stocking, Mr. Codman proceeds: "Such was the simple piety of many of that devoted little army. On the stern but confident religion of their youth, taught them under the white steeples of their village meeting-houses, they leaned, full of faith, as upon a strong staff, in the days of hunger, cold, and wretchedness in the wilderness, and in the weary hours of disease and defeat before the fortress city of Quebec." We can only regret that Mr. Codman should not have lived to see the publication of a book which is so carefully worked out and so filled with enthusiasm.

—In 'Johnnie Courteau and Other Poems' (Putnams), Dr. W. H. Drummond reasserts his claim to the province which he entered upon when he wrote 'The Wreck of the *Julie Plante*,' and made his own by the publication of 'The Habitant.' He knows the French Canadians thoroughly well, and his fund of humor is far from being exhausted, as may be seen from pieces like "Johnnie Courteau" and "Mon Frère Camille" in the present volume. "The Hill of St. Sebastien" recalls Chateaubriand's "Le Montagnard Émigré," while there is more than a suggestion of pathos in several of the poems. "Little Lac Grenier" gives a delightful picture of the solitary Laurentian tarn, and "The Curé of Calumette" is the clever portraiture of a type well known in Quebec, the man whose parentage is partly Irish and partly French. But best of all is "Little Bateese," which may be called the most delicate of Dr. Drummond's poems, whether in this book or in 'The Habitant.' Occasionally the broken English of the French farmer is cast aside; for example, in a few lines at the very beginning, where the true motive of all these verses about the Canadian is exposed:

> "Remember when these tales you read
> Of rude but honest 'Canayen,'
> That Joliet, La Verandrye,
> La Salle, Marquette, and Hennepin
> Were all true 'Canayen' themselves—
> And in their veins the same red stream;
> The conquering blood of Normandie
> Flowed strong, and gave America
> Coureurs de bois and voyageurs
> Whose trail extends from sea to sea!"

Here Dr. Drummond shows where his real sympathies lie. The life of the *habitant* at its best is, and has ever been, bound up with the woods and with the freedom of the open air. Dr. Drummond's hunters, lumbermen, and peasants are somewhat idealized, but, though they are the products of a generous spirit, history is not seriously distorted, while the sincerity of the poet's feeling adds depth and color to his lines. Mr. Coburn's illustrations are all animated, and some of them give proof of decided talent.

—Whatever importance may attach to Mr. Hubert W. Brown's 'Latin America: The Pagans, the Papists, the Patriots, the Protestants, and the Present Problem' (Fleming H. Revell Co.) cannot be attributable to either profound historical research or to keen philosophic deductions from known facts concerning the Latin Americans. It might serve to awaken enthusiasm among a certain class of church people, whose zeal to aid missionary enterprise might thereby be quickened. That pagan forms in the externals of Roman Catholic worship crop up also in Latin America hardly needs to be explained at the cost of many printed pages. We have heard more or less of such practices since the days of Ulrich Zwingli. The evil of Rome, the failure of Roman Catholicism to touch the spiritual natures of the indigines of Spanish America, fanaticism, useless penances—these constitute the burden of Mr. Brown's book. It is pleasing, however, to note that he has observed evidences of a revival of energy, presumably for good, in the Roman Catholic Church in Latin America, and that he admits progress towards a reformation, or casting off of the excrescences that had grown during the colonial period; but he does not fully recognize how much of this has resulted from the persistent efforts of the Vatican councils in recent years. There is some confusion of thought in the volume, as where Mr. Brown assumes that there would be amazement at home if we sent missionary workers with an invading army at their back, after having been able to write without apology (p. 194), "An agent of the American Bible Society accompanied the American army in its invasion of Mexico in the war of 1847." We must protest against his defence of that vicious practice of adapting the so-called Gospel Hymns to the Spanish in violation of the poetic laws of that language. No people in the world are more devoted to literary excellence of form than those of Spanish blood. To offend in this is to repel people of culture and refinement. The author is often interesting when dealing with Mexico, but his knowledge of the rest of Latin America is derived from second and often third-hand sources of information.

—'American Literature' (Scott, Foresman & Co.), by Prof. Alphonso G. Newcomer of Stanford University, is an excellent school-book and something more. Considered sim-

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ply as an aid in academic and collegiate instruction, it is—so far as can be judged without actually using it with a class—admirably adapted to its purpose. It imparts important information concisely and accurately; its groupings of authors by the natural cleavage of chronology, locality, and idea are managed with great discretion, and are excellently suited to help the student toward a synoptical view of the subject. Finally, its suggestions for study are unusually helpful and suggestive. But, quite apart from its function as a text-book, Professor Newcomer's little volume deserves consideration by the general reader as a literary history of America. It is actualized by a vivid historical imagination, and its author's feeling for perspective and proportion—in placing American literature in the general course of letters, and in internal ranking and classification—is unusually keen and just. In the ticklish sections upon contemporary writers there are certain implications with which some readers are sure to find fault. For instance, it would seem to us that more space should have been given to men like Col. Higginson, Dr. Mitchell, and Dr. Eggleston; and to others whom it would be indelicate to mention, considerably less. But, on the whole, the comparative judgments are contrived with caution and fairness. The detailed criticism of particular writers also is eminently satisfactory. Professor Newcomer's estimates and appreciations are often original and independent. He is never slavishly holden to literary authority; but neither is he intolerant of it. He avoids equally the extremes of pedantry and cockiness, which have not been unknown in studies of American literature. He writes a graceful, unaffected style, lively but not flippant.

—Mr. J. N. Larned's 'Multitude of Counsellors: A Collection of Codes, Precepts, and Rules of Life from the Wise of All Ages' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) has had many predecessors of its kind, but compares favorably with the best of them. Its distinction from many others is that it is almost purely ethical. There is an introductory essay of thirty-one pages, which is a remarkably concise and valuable comment on the selections that follow it. These, if lacking much of a complete representation, disarm the critic of his objection by the abundance of their riches. One is persuaded that men have known well enough what they ought to do for some five or six thousand years; what they have lacked has been personal impulse or inspiration. Mr. Larned questions the value of systematic moral philosophy as a help to right living, but it may be permitted us to doubt whether his beloved maxims are much better. It is "truth embodied in a tale" that makes for righteousness. A good biography of a noble life, however simple, would help more than all these aphorisms, though one must check his opinion by such a judgment as that of Robert Louis Stevenson on William Penn's 'Fruits of Solitude.' The most remarkable omission here is that of the Wisdom of Solomon, certainly a much more important book than Ecclesiasticus. A less eccentric moralist than Thoreau might have served for colophon, and, seeing that Mr. Larned begins with Ptah-hotep, "the primitive archetype of all gentlemen," could he have done better than to end with George William Curtis, a modern gentleman between whose ideals of manners and of morals there was no dividing line?

THE JEWISH ENCYCLOPÆDIA.

The Jewish Encyclopædia: A Descriptive Record of the History, Religion, Literature, and Customs of the Jewish People from the Earliest Times to the Present Day. New York: Funk & Wagnalls Co. 1901. Vol. I. Aach—Apocalyptic Literature. Pp. xxxviii+686+xxxviii.

Of encyclopædias and cyclopædias the flood still rises. From gardening to theology, and from architecture to law, its waves roll in on us, and the only doubt left is whether we have come to the age which condenses, sums, concludes, and rests, or to that which revolts and casts its challenge of things as they are into a statement of those things themselves. So the 'De Proprietatibus Rerum' of Bartholomeus de Glanville marked an end, and the 'Encyclopédie' marked a beginning. If such fears for us in the fulness of our twentieth-century vivacity and expansion seem absurd, it is yet well to remember that the greatest encyclopædia of all is in Chinese, and that the decline of original work in Arabic was marked by the writing of compends. Should we resist this old fatality of "Rest and be thankful" and go on from assured ground, thus seemingly steadied beneath our feet, into fresh uncertainties, it will be a new thing in the history of civilization.

The appearance, therefore, of this latest encyclopædia has an interest even greater than its own sufficiently great importance would explain. It is of a new kind. The description of no other encyclopædia yet in existence, draw it largely as we may, covers the one now before us. It may possibly belong to the same class as the long-promised but still lingering Muhammadan Cyclopædia, and, again, there may be grave differences. On one side, it is a true encyclopædia, and speaks, always from a Jewish standpoint, *de omni scibili;* on another, it is a cyclopædia as the record of a single branch of knowledge—the civilization of a single race. But the civilization of one race cannot be cut out with a hatchet from the civilization of all races, and least of all when that race is the Hebrew. Their line has gone out through all the earth, and their word to the end of the world. Cosmopolitan beyond all others, narrowly national above all others, no other people is so fitted to be the despair of the classifier. The new spirit of nationality which Mr. Gladstone hailed in the Balkans, has touched them, but in touching them has been changed into something which, the cynic will say, is both rich and strange. Even as a nation among the nations the chosen people is the chosen people still, and gathers to itself the heritage of the world. And so it alone has the self-consciousness to write its own encyclopædia and sum its own life. For other peoples the same thing, to some extent, has come about unconsciously. The Spanish and the Italian, the American and the English descendants of Brockhaus's 'Conversations-Lexikon' — the century-old mother of them all—mirror the thought, tastes, and attitudes of the peoples for whom they are written. But each tries fairly enough to represent unbiassedly the sum of human knowledge, so far, at least, as it rises on their horizon. Their limitations are necessary, not self-imposed.

If, then, the present work is to avoid an unhappy provincialism, it must accept absolutely that it is only a cyclopædia in the exact sense, and rigidly reject all general rubrics. The full title would suggest that such is in fact the plan, but in this first volume some articles have entered which can hardly be justified. Thus, Albertus Magnus undoubtedly was to some extent influenced by Maimonides and Avicebron, but only those who would see him at a Hebrew angle should look for him here. At the most his system might be treated under Maimonides or Avicebron as a result influenced by them. Again, Aldus Manutius certainly should have a place in a true encyclopædia, but it may be doubted whether his publishing a Hebrew grammar and enjoying Hebrew friendships justify his appearance here. He might be mentioned under Printing or under Gerson Soncino, his Jewish friend. As it is, his biography here is ludicrously one-sided. Similarly we have a biography of al-Farabi, for no other reason, apparently, than because Maimonides and other Jewish philosophers borrowed from him. He himself had no Jewish relationships, and should have been introduced in some general sketch of the development of philosophy among the Jews, or in the article on Maimonides. Again, the article on Altruism, if its own view is justified, is as much in place as the historic chapter on the snakes in Iceland. It is practically a definition and description of altruism, and a statement that such a thing does not exist in Judaism. So, too, with that on Agnosticism. It is an elaborate exposition how the difficulty which produces agnosticism cannot exist for Jews. All that is pure negative polemic, and should have no place here.

But such errors of intrusion are comparatively rare, and, leaving them on one side as due to mal-arrangement more than anything else, the true contents of the book may be classified under the following heads: First, and overwhelmingly, comes biography. This is really the backbone of the book and an ample justification for its existence. Beginning with Biblical biography, its net sweeps in all Jews of any name in the Talmud, in the Middle Ages, and down to the present day, taking up all contemporary Jews of reputation and forming of them practically a "Who's Who" in Judaism. Of necessity the scale of these biographies is limited, but each is followed by a bibliography which gives access to the ultimate facts. In this respect the importance of the work done cannot be exaggerated. A dictionary of Jewish biography has been a long and painfully felt want; but now it will be possible to turn to this book with confidence that, even though there may not be found in it all that is sought, yet it will at least afford that *ποῦ στῶ* indispensable for further search.

Secondly, the history of the Jews is treated geographically. Thus, we have, for example, articles on Afghanistan, Africa, Alabama, Albany, Alexandria, Algeria, Amsterdam, etc., which contain a mass of information inaccessible elsewhere. That holds especially of the descriptions of the present condition of the Jewish population, for which it has been possible to draw largely on the assistance of the local rabbis, thus affording a very curious and interesting illustration of the essential unity of the Jewish civilization over all the

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world. These descriptions, originally written in many different languages and scripts, emanating from very different environments and conditions, are still descriptions of the one people of Israel as it pursues its separate life wherever in the world it may have been cast. Not an organization, but an organism, it impresses the imagination as does the tremendous system of the Church of Rome. Viewed on one side, we can understand the proudest pages of Disraeli, exulting in his Sephardic blood, and, on another, that insane panic before a gigantic fact whose fruit has been anti-Semitism. As to execution, these historical articles are naturally somewhat unequal. Those, for example, on Alsace and Amsterdam are excellent, being continuously full and detailed. That on Alexandria, although in parts good, and especially so in its treatment of the present situation, is very uneven. The history from the Roman period to the present day is passed over without a word, and the treatment of Hellenistic Judaism under the Ptolemies is almost childishly inadequate. Under this head should be mentioned also the articles on Agricultural Colonies, on the Alliance Israélite Universelle, and on Anti-Semitism. These explain some of the most interesting and important movements in modern Judaism, and are excellent of their kind; the first two are filled with statistics and tables and fairly illuminated with illustrations.

Thirdly, we have such a treatment of the Old Testament as might be looked for in a dictionary of the Bible. This is by far the weakest side of the book, and even the preface (p. xii.) speaks of it apologetically. The difficulty has been rightly felt, that an exhaustive, or even adequate, treatment at this point would compete unhappily with other modern and successful books. Yet, on the other hand, this book is to describe the history and religion of the Jewish people from beginning to end, and its Scriptures are certainly a most important part of both. In view of this, we cannot but feel that either all articles on Biblical subjects should have been frankly struck out and reference made to the corresponding sections in the known Bible dictionaries, or that these articles should have been developed with sufficient detail and thoroughness. Such competing articles written on the scale of those in "Cheyne" and "Hastings," but from a specifically Jewish point of view, would have had the highest racial and even scientific value. As it is, we have space taken up to little purpose. But there was a further difficulty, which may have decided this matter, and which certainly went to give a curious compound character to the articles as written. It would appear that the gap separating "traditionalists" and "critics"—to use the current terms—among Jews is even wider than among Christians. No Christian dictionary of the Bible of any size, not even the "Hastings," can be claimed specifically as traditionalist; the traditional party among the Jews has been of weight enough to affect this book. The editors, with a "canniness" that characterizes their efforts throughout, have divided each of the more important Biblical articles into three sections. First comes a simple statement of the traditional facts, no comment, no analysis; secondly, the rabbinical interpretation, the facts as the fathers have viewed them—so far, the devout may go without soul's peril; thirdly, the "critical" view — here the traditional facts are rechopped, rearranged, and reinterpreted. To the rabbinical section is attached an account of the transmutations suffered by Jewish legends and beliefs among Muslims. Of these three sections, only the rabbinical has the slightest novelty to commend it, and even it is bare enough.

The fourth division may be classified as articles bearing on Talmudic law. The treatment of rabbinic literature in general is, for the most part, under the authors' names, but there are besides special rubrics for legal points, *e. g.*, Abetment, Alibi, Alienation, etc. The importance for the history of civilization of this great system is coming to be recognized, certainly if slowly. The student of comparative law must now have a much wider horizon than that which lay round even Sir Henry Maine. The present articles will go far to extend that horizon and to raise new possibilities of comparison.

Fifth come a number of rubrics which can be classed roughly as belonging to anthropology and folk-lore. The special article on Jewish anthropology is short and disappointing, but it is to be supplemented by many articles which will perhaps cover its nakedness. Of the importance of the subject there can be no question; the character and permanence of the Jewish racial type is a standing anthropological problem. Folk-lore is more richly represented in the present volume. Among the articles on it may be mentioned Abracadabra, Æsop, Ahikar, Amulets, Ancestor-worship, Anecdotes. All are readable and interesting, but none goes very deep; their limits are those of the popular and not the scientific encyclopædia.

Finally may be mentioned a few unclassifiable articles, including some of the best. High among them stands Lidzbarsky on the Alphabet—an excellent piece of work. There is a good treatment of the Hebrew accentual system by Margolis and a fair account of Apocalyptic literature. Dr. Gaster writes too shortly upon Alchemy.

The chief value of this book, then, is to be found in its biographies, its descriptions of the present state of Jews throughout the world, and in its elucidations of Talmudic law. On all these points it gives first-hand information of a kind and to an extent not accessible elsewhere. The rest is pretty much leather and prunella, introduced to make up a handbook of general information for the Jewish home. Whether it would not be better for Jewish homes to seek their instruction in non-national encyclopædias may remain a moot question. The people of Israel have done and suffered at least as much as any other race; their record is graven deep on the history of the world; they are amply justified in desiring a great book to the glory of their faith and their history. But unpleasing parallels might be drawn between some aspects of this work and some books of the baser sort in laudation of our own recent military glory.

The get-up of the book is good, in printing, paper, and illustrations. The publishers are to be congratulated on the skill with which they have engineered its appearance. With a backing of over 6,000 patron-subscribers—list carefully printed at the end with an open letter to them from Dr. Singer, the projector and managing editor—the success of the undertaking would seem to be assured. The price, therefore, of seven dollars per volume stirs some wonder in us. It is three times that of the much better bound, equally well printed, very much more fully illustrated, and nearly twice as large volumes of Meyer's 'Konversations-Lexikon.' In English, the volumes of Chambers's 'Encyclopædia' are quite as well bound, printed, and illustrated, are considerably larger, and are probably much less than half the price. If it be objected that this book consists of absolutely new matter, so does the 'Encyclopædia Biblica.' Each of its volumes contains about twice as much matter and costs two dollars less; and the public to which the present book appeals is at least as large. Is this difference due to European pauper labor, to our beneficent duties on books, or to some *tertium quid?*

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

The French Revolution: A Sketch. By Shailer Mathews, A.M. Longmans, Green & Co. 1901.

Le Conventionnel Philippeaux. Par Paul Mautouchet. Paris: Georges Bellais. 1900. (Bibliothèque d'Histoire Moderne et Contemporaine.)

It is only for the sake of convenience and of a broad contrast that we bring together these two books on the French Revolution. M. Mautouchet writes a longer volume about Philippeaux, an associate of Danton, and a man of limited fame, than Professor Mathews devotes to the whole course of the Revolution from its causes to the end of the National Convention. Neither work comes into comparison with the other, but the difference between them in point of scope serves to illustrate one striking fact. With us and with the English the study of the Revolution is a sport or an accomplishment. With the French it is a separate and recognized profession.

Professor Mathews's book belongs, both by virtue of space and treatment, to the category of the "general sketch." It is short, it does not assume that the reader has already studied the period, and it is written in a popular style. The two things about it which impress one most are the prominence which is given to the causes of the movement, and the exclusion of the Directory from the author's survey. We are not denying that a strong case can be made out for the scheme which has been followed, but the arrangement of space at once catches the attention. One hundred and ten pages, or about two-fifths of the total contents, are taken up with matters which precede the meeting of the States-General. Professor Mathews, however, is prepared for such criticism as may be based upon his conception of the Revolution, for he says in his preface:

"It is this need of studying the spirit of the French people quite as much as their deeds, that has led to what may appear, in a book of this size, a somewhat disproportionately extended treatment of the pre-revolutionary condition of France. But the change of temper which made the old régime unendurable and compelled Louis to summon the State [*sic*] General, was by far the most important element of the Revolution. . . . To understand the conditions which were outgrown, and the origin and growth

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of the revolutionary spirit, seems, therefore, quite as necessary as to trace the history of the destruction of abuse and the struggle for liberty and rights."

After this statement we cannot tax Professor Mathews with having worked out his first part too diffusely. We are brought in contact with a point of view and an avowed purpose. But to the omission of the Directory period we do not so easily agree. While the restoration of order after Vendémiaire may furnish the historian with a just ground for hastening to a close, he should, in an elementary manual, explain how the Consulate was established. Professor Mathews concludes with a few sentences about Napoleon, connecting him with the army and with the Revolution. What he says in his two closing paragraphs is very true, and we only regret that it should be so meagre. On the whole, we cannot call his notice of the relation which exists between the Revolution and Napoleon adequate to the importance of the subject.

Professor Mathews may be called a conservative admirer of the Revolution. He starts out by condemning the old régime so heartily that the carnage which accompanied its overthrow seems a slight matter. "The Terrorists were seekers after order, not after anarchy, and while it lasted the Terror was a genuine experiment in politics —crude, hideous, and never to be confounded with the work of the generous idealists of the Constituent Assembly, but, in a politically ignorant and morally weak nation like France, possessing not a single man of first-rate ability among its legislators, probably inevitable." The atrocities are not passed over or explained away, but the abolition of feudal despotism is held to be worth the price. Professor Mathews puts his view of the case clearly when he is describing the state of society in '93:

"Indeed, for any one except a possible 'suspect,' life was probably no worse under the absolutism of the Committee of Public Safety than under that of Louis XVI. One might almost say that the masses of France were actually terrorized into happiness. Criminals dared no longer show themselves. Men no longer feared the *lettre de cachet;* all were equal before the law; provisions were no longer in the hands of monopolies; military promotion was open to the peasant and artisan; lands could be bought by the poorest; education was free to all."

Regarding the leaders of the Revolution, Professor Mathews does not develop any very new opinions. His chapter on the old régime shows traces of Taine's influence, and when he comes to the politicians of the Constituent, the Legislative, and the Convention, he accepts Taine's verdict of their inefficiency, although his sympathy with the aims of the Revolution prevents him from shafting his criticisms with bitterness. He thinks the Constituent unpractical and its work doomed to failure by the undue generosity which it showed. "If ever a strong government is needed, it is when a country is just experiencing the intoxication of new liberties; but this, as we have seen, was the one thing the Assembly was unable, even unwilling, to give France. In this as in other particulars it accurately represented the philosophical, idealistic temper of the class of society from which it was elected. But, like all idealists, it could not see that it was confronted by facts and not theories; by Frenchmen and not natural men." Similarly the Terror dragged on because France suffered from a dearth of political capacity. "Had the Committee of Public Safety come under the influence of a really great man, France, during 1794, would almost certainly have gradually returned to a normal condition." In Professor Mathews's eyes, Danton and Carnot alone were eminent enough to have mastered the situation, and fate led each of them into another path.

The effect of the Revolution upon Europe is not one of Professor Mathews's main topics. He keeps closely to the affairs of France; and, where his space is so limited, he is right in doing so. His book draws its materials from the best sources, and will form a valuable addition to the manuals which deal with great historical eras.

In his long monograph on Philippeaux, M. Mautouchet is carrying forward the endless task of distinguishing between the virtuous politicians of the Revolution and the vicious; between the true patriots and the scoundrels who exploited the public excitement to their own advantage. Whenever a member of the Convention reaches the rank, we will not say of an orator or a member of the Great Committee, but of a representative on mission, the information about him becomes enormous, and it is always conflicting. Regarding Philippeaux, opinion has traversed a wide range. Leaving contemporary writers out of account, he has been assailed by Hauréau, Buchez and Roux, Louis Blanc and Ernest Hamel; he has been defended by Michelet, Jules Claretie, and Aulard. M. Mautouchet is, if we may judge from his dedication and the minuteness of his researches, a disciple of M. Aulard, and, like his master, he has warm words of praise for Philippeaux. But, what is more important, he bases his favorable verdict on a closer investigation of fact and motive than has before been undertaken.

Outside of France, Philippeaux owes his widest celebrity to the accident which made him a fellow-victim with Danton, Desmoulins, Westermann, Hérault-Séchelles, and Fabre d'Églantine. His solid reputation, however, rests upon his determined stand in La Vendée, when acting there as the representative of the Convention; upon his courage in attacking the Committee of Public Safety; and upon his solicitude for the well-being of the troops. When one speaks of what he did in La Vendée, it is not implied that he played the despot or the butcher. Besides taking resolute steps to cope with the disturbance, he uncloaked, without shrinking, the worst details of republican corruption and bestiality. Mr. Jephson, whose name is synonymous with hatred of the Revolution, is glad to quote Philippeaux's reports from the field.

M. Mautouchet's monograph is divided between two sets of interests. It is a biographical study, and yet it presents aspects of the Revolution which are wider than the career of any individual. Philippeaux was born at Ferrières, in the diocese of Beauvais, and became a lawyer practising in the province of Maine. Through the opening years of the Revolution he lived at Le Mans, and it was not until he entered the Convention that he rose to national importance. What we have called the wider aspect of this volume is concerned with the attitude of the provinces towards the Revolution in the days before the Flight to Vincennes and the September Massacres. M. Mautouchet avoids basing a general statement on what occurred at Le Mans, but one of his chief results (to us, indeed, his most interesting result) is the proof of a disposition in the provinces to go as far forward on the path of change as the capital itself would go. It is hard to make out the exact nature of the rôle which Paris took in the Revolution. Her initiative is quickly seen. The question which one asks is whether she hurried France into the Republic without the consent of the majority.

M. Mautouchet answers this question, at least partly, by an appeal to the experience of Philippeaux, who, in the *Défenseur de la Vérité*, stated his position thus: "Ce n'est pas la Révolution qui m'a rendu patriote; les maximes sacrées de la liberté et de l'égalité enflammaient mon cœur longtemps avant qu'on entrevît sa possibilité." According to the opinion of M. Mautouchet, the provinces were just as much in earnest about the overthrow of the old system as Paris, though they were also moderate in attacking the nobles and clergy. When the Constituent had established the departments, the districts, and the municipalities, a change in the personnel of administration naturally began. The names of roturiers appear among those of the clergy, the nobles, and the richer merchants on the official lists. The presence of the new element is felt to be an intrusion, but it is at first accepted. Then the "aristocracy" of the gentle and the rich scorn their colleagues, and abdicate functions which bring them into contact with the populace. M. Mautouchet recalls the willingness of the masses at the outset to respect rank, though depriving it of legal status. The subsequent troubles he traces to the pride and aloofness of those who thought themselves dispossessed. "Sans ce dépit jaloux des anciennes classes dirigeantes, qui ne purent se résigner à l'égalité, la Révolution n'aurait pas eu le caractère violent qu'elle devait présenter plus tard." So broad a proposition can hardly be proved from a single chapter of local history. Still, M. Mautouchet shows that the people of Le Mans embarked upon the Revolution in a spirit of seriousness.

The original friendliness of Philippeaux towards the Girondists changing into opposition, his antagonism towards the Hébertists, the nature of his public services and the cause of Robespierre's hatred are among the subjects to which M. Mautouchet directs attention after bringing Philippeaux from Le Mans to Paris. We have selected for notice the earlier part of the book because it may affect opinion about one of the most significant problems of the Revolution. This is a work of learning, and lends powerful support to the belief in Philippeaux's probity.

Portraits et Souvenirs. Par Camille Saint-Saëns. Paris: Société d'Édition Artistique.

Camille Saint-Saëns is the most intellectual and intelligent of all French composers, and, perhaps, the most original. His works, by no means sufficiently known or appreciated at present, are likely to endure longer than those of any of his predecessors. He is an excellent pianist, and, as an organist, has no superior among living musicians. His skill in reading at sight complicated orchestral scores astonished even Wagner. As a musical critic he is less entertaining

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than the picturesque and romantic Berlioz, but also less erratic and more suggestive and helpful; more appreciative of the past, and more just to contemporaries. Some years ago he published a book entitled 'Harmonie et Mélodie,' one of the objects of which was to make known to the public the important fact, so often ignored, that harmony is not only the latest, but also the highest product of musical evolution. In the preface to his new volume of essays, for which he has chosen the apt title of 'Portraits et Souvenirs,' he remarks that one might think a century had elapsed since the earlier book was written. At that time melody was supposed to mean "inspiration," and harmony meant "science." To-day the amateurs despise the once idolized melody, worship the most obscure and incomprehensible harmonies, and are displeased if the orchestral instruments "do not dart about in all directions like poisoned rats!" The general public, luckily, goes its own way, and to it Saint-Saëns addresses his new book, containing "anecdotes, reminiscences of some great musicians I knew, and a little criticism on general musical topics. As for real memoirs," he adds, "I shall never write any"—which is to be regretted, for the author is an interesting personage, and the reminiscences contained in the present volume whet the appetite for more of the same kind.

Gounod, though older, was, perhaps, the most intimate musical friend of Saint-Saëns, and to him is devoted a most interesting chapter of sixty-three pages. "When Gounod," writes the author, "was already in full possession of his talent, he did not disdain to make me, a mere pupil still, the confidant of his most intimate artistic thoughts, and to give my ignorant mind the benefit of his knowledge. He discussed with me as with an equal, and it was thus that I became, if not his pupil, yet his disciple." When Gounod composed his "Mireille," a work which, the author thinks, has not had justice done to it, he sang and played each number to his friend as soon as it was done; and when the whole was finished, Gounod sang and Bizet and Saint-Saëns sat at the piano and the harmonium to replace the orchestra. This was some time before the performance of "Romeo," which marked the highest triumph of Gounod—the time when all the world sang his melodies, and all the young composers imitated him. "Romeo" was well received at once, whereas "Faust" was at first almost a failure. The critics said there was no melody in it, and that it would not be given more than fifteen times. Regarding its ballet, Saint-Saëns gives a queer detail. When about to begin writing the music for it, Gounod was seized with religious scruples, and sent a messenger to Saint-Saëns begging him to write it for him. His friend declared himself willing to oblige him, if necessary, but strongly urged him not to mar the unity of his score by introducing another writer's style into it; so the matter was dropped, and Gounod wrote his own ballet music, a "chef-d'œuvre du génie."

Like Liszt, Gounod was a curious mixture of Christian and pagan, of religious devotion and worldliness, in his music as well as in his life. To the world at large, and especially to his own countrymen, he is known chiefly as a composer of two very popular operas. But in the opinion of Saint-Saëns, when, in some distant time, Gounod's operas shall have been put away on the dusty shelves of libraries, where only students will know about them, his "Messe de Sainte-Cécile," his "Rédemption," and his "Mors et Vita" will remain alive "to teach future generations how great a musician gave lustre to France in the nineteenth century." When they first appeared, they were too novel to be appreciated at their true value. "It was apparent that a new genius was approaching, and, as everybody knows, such an arrival is generally not well received. Intellectually, strange to say, man is an animal that loves the night, or at least the dusk; light frightens him, he must be accustomed to it gradually." It is to be hoped that Saint-Saëns's sympathetic analyses of Gounod's oratorios will lead to their being more frequently sung in this country, as well as in France. They are in several respects superior to those of Handel and Mendelssohn, besides being less hackneyed.

Berlioz is another eminent French composer whom Saint-Saëns knew well, and whose portrait he paints vividly. "Un paradox fait homme, tel fut Berlioz." The world looked on him as vain, hateful, and wicked. To Saint-Saëns he seemed kind, "bon jusqu'à la faiblesse"; but he carefully ignores all the historic facts which prove Berlioz to have been exceptionally jealous and spiteful in regard to his rivals. As a composer he was, no doubt, absolutely original, though not fertile of ideas, and in the line of orchestral coloring he influenced all his generation; here he was a scientific experimenter as well as an artist. Saint-Saëns considers him "the first musical critic of his period, notwithstanding the frequently inexplicable singularity of his judgments. . . . The pages he wrote on the symphonies of Beethoven, on the operas of Gluck, are incomparable; one must always return to them when one wants to refresh one's imagination, purify one's taste, and wash off the dust with which every-day life and the ordinary musical experiences cover our artistic souls, which have so much to suffer in this world." His fault as a critic was that he judged works solely from one point of view—whether they bored him or pleased him personally. The ancient masters did not exist for him; Bach he looked on as a dry pedant, till Saint-Saëns one day made him acquainted with one of his choruses. Berlioz was astounded, delighted; he had not conceived it possible that Bach could write such a thing. "The plain truth was, he did not know him."

In his ability to appreciate all the great masters of the past as well as of his own time, Saint-Saëns presents a pleasing contrast to Berlioz. He deserves especial praise for his championship of Liszt, whose compositions have been as completely neglected in France as Schumann's once were for several decades. In a short and pithy essay, which cannot be commended too highly to the attention of intelligent musicians, he dwells on most of the main phases of Liszt's activity as a composer; his epoch-making symphonic poems, built upon the ruined mould of the antique symphony and the venerable overture; his delightful rhapsodies; his unjustly sneered-at operatic transcriptions, "in the least of which the hand of a composer is visible"; his transformation of the piano; his improvements in notation; the wonderful use he, a pianist, made of the voice as well as the orchestra; his rich melodic vein; his remarkable boldness and originality in the realm of harmony, in which he went even beyond Wagner, etc. Especial attention should be called to the remarks on two phases of Liszt's genius which are least known to professionals as well as to the public: his sacred works, "in which the incomparable splendor of cathedrals is reflected," and his compositions for the organ, in which, Saint-Saëns tells us as a specialist, Liszt seemed to foresee intuitively the latest improvements in that instrument. And while the professional critics have so long been ignorantly decrying Liszt as a virtuoso and a seeker after sensational effects, Saint-Saëns, with a deeper insight, finds that Liszt, on the contrary, made expression the aim and end of music. In only one point does the French composer misconceive the Hungarian. Liszt did not, as Saint-Saëns fancies, try to impose his novel works on the world too soon. On the contrary, he was altogether too modest and lacking in "push," refraining from giving his own compositions the benefit of that interpretative genius which had done more than anything else to make popular the works of the great masters from Bach, Beethoven, and Schubert to Chopin and Wagner.

Enough has been said to show what a rich source of information and suggestion the new volume of Saint-Saëns is. For the rest of the contents we must limit ourselves to indicating the titles of the chapters: Victor Massé, Antoine Rubinstein, Une Traversée en Bretagne, Un Engagement d'Artiste, Georges Bizet, Louis Gallet; Docteur à Cambridge, "Orphée," "Don Giovanni," La Défense de l'Opéra Comique, Drame Lyrique et Drame Musical, Le Théâtre au Concert, L'Illusion Wagnérienne, Le Mouvement Musical, Lettre de Las Palmas. It may be added that 'Portraits et Souvenirs' has in a short time reached its third edition.

Wall and Water Gardens. By Gertrude Jekyll. Pp. vii, 177, 132 ills. London: Hudson & Kearns; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901.

A new book by Gertrude Jekyll is a delight to garden lovers. Whether they care about garden design as do those who can see little good except in the formal garden, or whether they are among those for whom the natural method is the only right one, they cannot fail to find much that deeply interests them in any book by Miss Jekyll. Her catholicity of taste is remarkable. She has an eye for the best in every style, and a happy faculty of pointing out just what it is that makes for real excellence in any example. Indeed, it is this catholicity, this lack of partisanship, that makes her books so acceptable to people of such opposite convictions. Your old-fashioned landscape gardener, for whom a straight line is an abomination, finds as much to delight him in her books as does the most enthusiastic devotee of the architectural manner, for whom the T-square and the clippers are the only necessary garden tools. But, design aside, it is the class that cares about the growing of flowers for their own sake that finds the deepest satisfaction in Miss Jekyll's books. Especially is this true of such a book as 'Wall and Water Gardens.' In this she has had an unusually good chance to bring into play the inti-

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mate knowledge of plants that characterizes all she writes. Her love for flowers is strong and direct, but well controlled, so that while it always makes itself felt, it never becomes obtrusive, least of all does it fall into sentimentality. This love of growing things is no idle passion. It makes her minute observation of the ways of plants, their habits of growth, their various characters, of very much deeper meaning than would mere scientific study. But even beyond her love of plants and her thorough knowledge of them, there stands out from all Miss Jekyll's work the fact that she is an artist, knowing the true relation of plants to each other and to their surroundings, and taking the keenest delight in so disposing all the material at her command as to produce garden compositions of the greatest beauty.

Miss Jekyll's earlier books, 'Wood and Garden' and 'House and Garden,' were devoted to the lessons she had learned from years of work in her own beautiful garden in Surrey. In 'Wall and Water Gardens' she opens a wider field, confining herself by no means to her own home, but seeking information, experience, and examples wherever they may best be found. The book is a practical one. It goes directly to the point. How shall we build our rough walls so that the plants may best find foothold? With what shall we back them so that in long dry spells the roots may find moisture? Where shall we place them, in shade or sun? Such questions are answered before any thought is given to the plants themselves. Then comes the rock wall in the sun, and the things that thrive upon it. Next its shady side, with ferns and saxifrages. Then terrace and garden walls, with such wealth of examples as may readily be found in England. The stream garden and marsh pools form a digression, and then our author turns to the rock garden proper, with its Alpine plants. Then follows the treatment of lakes and large ponds, of small ponds and pools, of formal basins and of water margins.

Such a list of the chief subjects covered by the book gives some idea of its scope, but none whatever of its charm, and, indeed, this charm is subtle and difficult to convey. It springs from well-trained observation, from clearness of statement, from directness of purpose, from a fine sense of appropriateness, from well-developed artistic faculties. Miss Jekyll teaches not only by her words, but by the pictures with which she makes her meaning doubly clear. The illustrations of 'Wall and Water Gardens,' beautiful though they are, are not selected merely because they are beautiful, but rather because they bring home the writer's idea more forcibly and vividly than even her words. Many of them give us charming glimpses into old English gardens, across broad stretches of lawn, by lily pools to stately houses, or over still waters to a castle whose moat now serves only as a water garden. Many of them show us spray-like masses of tiny blossoms tumbling down over old bank walls, strange tufted things, looking half like sea anemones clinging to the chinks of the stone work, or scattered groups of hart's tongues crouching at the wall-foot. Others, again, show us how things from over sea or from the mountain tops take kindly to their new abode: Xerophyllum, our old friend the turkey-beard of the New Jersey pine barrens, raising its plumy blossoms in the south of England; Anemone Apennina and Erinus Alpinus, much at home in a shady wall not many feet above the level of the sea.

Although the treatment of streams, pools, and marshy places is handled with Miss Jekyll's unfailing artistic discernment, one feels that she is not in as close personal touch with water plants as with rock plants. This is more evident, perhaps, in the chapter on water lilies than elsewhere, for here her indebtedness to sources of information other than her own experience and observation shows pretty clearly. Miss Jekyll rarely trusts herself to give us anything not entirely her own, and in this she is wise. Most readers are so little skilled in the art of seeing that they can see more through her eyes than through their own, and for that reason they prefer to read about things that have come directly under her own observation.

Le Marché Financier en 1900-1901. Par Arthur Raffalovich, Correspondant de l'Institut. Paris: Librairie Guillaumin & Cie. 1901.

As a critic of contemporary movements in finance, M. Raffalovich has the double advantage of occupying a post in the Russian financial service, which gives him an insight into the most secret currents of the markets, and of residing in Paris, where, for various reasons, the most unbiassed view of financial world-movements may be obtained. Like his previous annual volumes beginning with 1891, the new 'Marché Financier' contains separate articles reviewing in great detail the year's financial history in England, Germany, Russia, Austria, Spain, Belgium, Italy, Switzerland, Portugal, Rumania, and the United States. Some of these papers are written by M. Raffalovich himself, some by well-known experts in the countries in question.

As might be supposed, the review of Russian finance—a subject rarely treated by a sure and practised hand—possesses particular interest; but we have space only to notice M. Raffalovich's contention that the violent fluctuations of the Imperial finances, between heavy annual surplus and heavy deficit, result inevitably from the Government's operation of railways, and from its monopoly in the manufacture of spirits. It is easy to see how fluctuations of trade in a country such as Russia—dependent chiefly on agriculture, and alternating between crops of enormous magnitude, as in 1893, and ruinous harvest failures, as in 1891 and 1897—must drive the Imperial revenues from one extreme to the other. With this in mind, there is no reason for surprise at the budget surplus of 167,000,000 rubles in 1893, only two years after a deficit of 177,000,000 in 1891. But to explain is not to approve a system which thus complicates the proper functions of Government, and which makes of the national exchequer a chronic and often unsuccessful applicant at every great money market in the world.

For the reasons already stated, we have found the greater interest in M. Raffalovich's review of the general financial situation. A summary, by so well-qualified and favorably situated an observer, of the exciting events on the markets of the past twelvemonth, ought to be singularly valuable, and M. Raffalovich does not disappoint us. The year 1899 he marks out as the culmination of Europe's movement of speculative expansion. During four years prior to that time, the investing public had been steadily parting with its fixed investments, and intrusting its money to the ventures common in a period of trade expansion. Then, as in all similar periods of the past,

"Great conversions of capital preceded epochs of feverish activity, which led directly to financial crises and embarrassments. These resultant disturbances sometimes arise from accidents quite independent of the will of the parties most concerned—from a war, a harvest failure, a political or social commotion; events which instantly check the progress of affairs, cut down available resources, and cause sudden retreat of speculative capital to a place of safety. But the reaction may also proceed from the very excesses of speculation itself, and both influences may be at work simultaneously. This is exactly what occurred in 1900."

M. Raffalovich here speaks of Europe; had he said 1901, his words would have described with the closest accuracy the course of events in the United States.

On the American situation, M. Raffalovich, writing, it would appear by the context, before Wall Street's débâcle of last May, makes some interesting observations. Having reviewed the familiar reasons for this country's sudden rise in financial prestige, he proceeds:

"These, then, are the conditions which explain North America's momentary supremacy. But great care must be taken to avoid exaggerated optimism. The industrial and financial situation is very strong, but too large inferences may easily be drawn from it. The huge and rapidly developed export movement through which that situation was attained, was a consequence of peculiar circumstances which may not permanently be reproduced. One is tempted to ask if New Yorkers are not indulging in premature triumph over the decadence of London. New York has gained great amounts of capital in diverse ways; the most lucrative being railway reorganizations, which sacrificed, without right or reason, European holders of the stocks and bonds in question. Several American harvests, thanks to the Russian shortages and the Indian famines, have been sold abroad under the best conditions. . . . But the question of the final classification of the United States among the financial Powers still remain open. The States have invested capital in Europe, they have bought back their own securities. But, with all this abundance of resources, they have even now not disdained to apply for loans at the European banks."

The significance of the last phenomenon pointed out by M. Raffalovich has been strikingly demonstrated by the events of the last few weeks.

Deafness and Cheerfulness. By A. W. Jackson, A.M., author of 'James Martineau: A Biography and Study.' Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1901.

Mr. Jackson's object in writing this little book is to induce a habit of cheerfulness in those who are suffering from the infirmity which has pressed so heavily on his own life. His deafness dates from the civil war, and was caused, we have been told, by a cannon-ball which whizzed so near his head that he considered himself at the time to have had a fortunate escape. Deafness did not at once ensue. It is, we suppose, his own story that he details on the eleventh page. Starting from this example, he writes first of unconscious deafness; and, having been told by a good aurist that 60 per cent. of the community are deaf in some degree, he advises those who suspect no trouble to undergo examina-

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tion; if haply they may be made wise in time. Nothing in the book is more pathetic than the account of his first losses—the clock-tick, the robin's song, the ripple of a loved stream, the drip-drop of the rain upon the roof. To many who enjoy approximately perfect hearing, this account of the sorrows of deafness from a sensitive and imaginative sufferer will be a startling revelation, and will open for them new avenues of sympathy. A chapter on its social afflictions will awaken responsive echoes in ears much better than Mr. Jackson's but not what they were once. We are obliged, however, to regard his suffering as uncommonly severe, involving not only the defect of hearing, but those dreadful noises in the head which frequently accompany deafness, while these things and all the concomitant social disabilities had for their victim a man of acute, if not quite morbid, sensibility. The subjective emphasis is revealed by contrast when he tells us of a friend deafer than himself, who testifies that in twenty-five years he has never been unpleasantly reminded of his deafness by his friends. Mr. Jackson may be hypersensitive, but this man or his friends must be quite out of the common.

A chapter on "Business Embarrassments" gives us a new sense of the tremendous handicap that deafness is to a man's business usefulness and success. Next follows "The Pathos of Deafness," but we had had so much of this already that the chapter comes near to being an anti-climax, especially as some of the humors of deafness are first recounted. Mr. Jackson's private contribution is a grace at table in concert with the deacon of his church. So far we have had more to aggravate the consciousness of deafness than to allay its smart. There is excuse for this in the appeal that is thus made to those who associate with deaf people. Mr. Jackson's book has quite as much admonition for these as for the deaf.

The chapter which most justifies the title of the book is the seventh, "Helps and Consolations of Deafness." We have compared this with Harriet Martineau's 'Letter to the Deaf,' which did good service in its day, and have found much general agreement with some difference. Both plead against false shame and for the trumpet when, instead of hearing, we are getting an uncertain sound. Miss Martineau's anticipation of lip-reading is very interesting. On this Mr. Jackson lays much stress, and more than Miss Martineau on the consolations of literature and science. Her more social disposition speaks in her insistence that society must not be given up. Mr. Jackson quotes her and demurs: one must discharge his duties to society, but if the effort to bear a part in social functions is wearisome and irritating, inducing nervous exhaustion and mental depression, the deaf should spare themselves. The book can safely be commended to the deaf and their impatient friends.

The Teachings of Dante. By Charles Allen Dinsmore. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

In his 'Convito' Dante wrote: "Know every one that nothing harmonized by a musical bond can be transmuted from its own speech to another without breaking all its sweetness and harmony." This has sometimes been the text of those who would decry all study of poetry in translation. But, if we mistake not, Mr. Dinsmore has composed his volume upon Dante's thought without an intimate knowledge of the Italian tongue, and his work is so admirable that it is a stumbling-block for one who would apply Dante's dictum strictly. Mr. Dinsmore has not concerned himself chiefly with the final flavor of the Dantesque style; he has not attempted, as other writers have, to convey to his own page something of the power of "that magical word too few." Nor has he attempted to impart in pedestrian prose any conception of the beauty of Dante's canorous lines. But he has produced a sane and sincere exposition of the poet's religious thought, and this is surely a work eminently worth while in an age with a growing tendency to value Dante most highly for certain subordinate phases of his poetic power, for his minute realism of observation, or his marvellous gift of lighting his page by a vivid glare or slow, pervasive glow. But Mr. Dinsmore has been at the pains of grasping the poem as a whole. If, as Parsons said, "time and toil, fasting and solitude" are necessary to the translator of Dante, the expositor of the poet's perplexities will find the strictest meditation no less needful. Mr. Dinsmore's book gives evidence of close and careful thought, and bears no marks of *la fretta che l'onestade ad ogni atto dismaga.*

The preliminary chapters upon Dante's outer and inner life are well informed and well considered. It does not, however, seem wise at this late day to doubt that the beatific lady of the 'Vita Nuova' and the 'Commedia' was Dante's neighbor, Beatrice Portinari, who married Simone de' Bardi. Despite an occasional iconoclastic authority, it certainly does not seem "more probable that she was some maiden to whom Dante gave the name of Beatrice, the blessed one, *to hide her identity.*" Indeed, Mr. Dinsmore is not consistent in his doubt, for just over the page he says: "With the death of Beatrice in his [Dante's] twenty-fifth year the first great sorrow came into his life." Now it was Beatrice de' Bardi who died in 1290, when Dante was exactly twenty-five. Nor can we quite agree with the implication of a sentence which follows: "Many go so far as to assert that he yielded to sensual lusts." Every one knows that, at the death of Beatrice, Dante's quest of his ideal wavered: Miss Rossetti and others have half believed that he became for the time something of the Epicurean, contracting an earthly marriage with Gemma dei Donati, and tasting some of the "settled sweets" of life. But whatever the truth may be, "sensual lusts" is not the perfect phrase.

But all this is preparatory and incidental. Mr. Dinsmore has aimed not to produce a literary study of Dante and his poem, but to expound what he believes to be the central spiritual truths of that epic of the inner life. He rightly conceives the scene of the 'Commedia' to be not the future existence, but the spiritual world which eternally is, with its three great subdivisions of sin, trial, and beatitude. The account of the "Inferno" as an experience of sin is conducted with great sincerity and with a lurid intensity caught from Dante himself, but as unusual as salutary in easy-going days. The characterization of Lucifer, at the bottom of the pit, as the complete type of the real nature of sin, will admit of quotation:

"Huge, bloody, loathsome, grotesque, self-absorbed; not dead, nor yet alive; having three faces, one fiery red, one between white and yellow, one black—indicating the threefold character of sin as malignant, impotent, and ignorant; every moment sending forth chilling death, making others woful in his own woes; punishing his followers with frightful torture, and thus undoing himself; the tears of the world flowing back to him as to their source and becoming his torment; the movement of his wings, by which he seeks to extricate himself, freezing the rivers, and thus imprisoning him—what more fitting personification could this seer have devised to show evil in its real deformity and folly?"

In passing from the murky "Inferno" to the "Purgatorio," where the "darkness is quieted by hope," Mr. Dinsmore comes to a theme common in present-day psychology. His discussion of "The Quest of Liberty" is excellent; and not the least fructifying section of the book is his chapter upon "Purgatory in Literature," in which the similarity of motive in the "Purgatorio," 'The Scarlet Letter,' and Tennyson's "Guinevere" is strikingly developed. It is interesting to note that, in spite of Mr. Dinsmore's all but worshipful attitude toward Dante, and in spite of his general theological purpose, he affirms that, in his conception of the means of sanctification, Dante is human and reasonable rather than distinctively Christian—in holding, that is, that virtue and inner peace are to be attained by ethical, not by supernatural, means. The final emphasis of the volume is rightfully, but somewhat unusually, laid upon the "Paradiso." The chapters describing and expounding the celestial spheres are perhaps the best in the book. They should lead even the reader unfamiliar with Dante at first hand to feel the truth of Dean Plumptre's sentence: "Post Dantis Paradisum nihil restat nisi visio Dei."

Enough has been said to show the peculiar merit of Mr. Dinsmore's book. It is written with a distinct theological preoccupation, but it is not overblown, to the reader's discomfort, by the dust of creeds. It lacks the sympathetic subtlety often found in Miss Rossetti's 'Shadow of Dante'; it fails, likewise, to attain the breadth of view and catholicity seen in such essays as those by Lowell, and Church, and Norton; it does not pretend to the minute Dantean scholarship of Oscar Kuhns, not to mention others than writers in English; but it is an honest piece of work, seriously to be reckoned with by the earnest student of Dante's thought.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, G. B., and Stephens, H. M. Select Documents of English Constitutional History. Macmillan. $2.25.
Adams, W. I. L. Woodland and Meadow. The Baker & Taylor Co. $2.50.
Autobiography of Benjamin Franklin. (Pocket Classics.) Macmillan. 25 cents.
Baker, R. S. Seen in Germany. McClure, Phillips & Co. $2.
Balfour, Graham. The Life of Robert Louis Stevenson. 2 vols. Scribners. $4.
Bonehill, Ralph. Boys of the Fort. The Mershon Co. $1.25.
Booth, Maud B. Lights of Childland. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.35.
Bowker, R. R. Of Politics. (The Art of Life.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 50 cents.
Brine, Mary D. Mother and Baby. R. H. Russell.
Britton, N. L. Manual of the Flora of the Northern States and Canada. H. Holt & Co. $2.25.
Brown, Helen D. Her Sixteenth Year. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.

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Chenery, Susan. As the Twig is Bent. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Chesnutt, C. W. The Marrow of Tradition. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Dunbar, P. L. Candle-Lightin' Time. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Elliott, Sarah B. The Making of Jane. Scribners. $1.50.
Foster, Mary H., and Cummings, Mabel H. Asgard Stories. Silver, Burdett & Co. 36 cents.
Friedman, I. K. By Bread Alone. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.50.
Giddings, F. H. Inductive Sociology. Macmillan. $1.10.
Grahame, R. B. C. A Vanished Arcadia. Macmillan. $2.50.
Graydon, W. M. The Princess of the Purple Palace. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.10.
Habberton, John. Caleb Wright. Boston: Lothrop Pub. Co. $1.50.
Halévy, Daniel. Essais sur le Mouvement Ouvrier en France. Paris: George Bellais. 3 fr. 50c.
Harrison, Frederic. George Washington, and Other American Addresses. Macmillan. $1.75.
James, Martha. My Friend Jim. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Johnson, Clifton. The Isle of the Shamrock. Macmillan. $2.
Kellogg, V. L. Elementary Zoölogy. H. Holt & Co. $1.20.
Kingsley, Charles. The Heroes; or, Greek Fairy Tales for My Children. R. H. Russell.
Lang, Andrew. The Mystery of Mary Stuart. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.
Lang, Andrew. The Violet Fairy Book. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Markham, Edwin. Lincoln, and Other Poems. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.
Martin, W. A. P. The Lore of Cathay. Fleming H. Revell Co.
Merrick, Caroline E. Old Times in Dixie Land. The Grafton Press.
Newspaper Rate Book. Chicago: Nelson Chesman & Co. $5.
Peary, Josephine D. The Snow Baby. Frederick A. Stokes. $1.30.
Phelps, Elizabeth Stuart. Within the Gates. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Quick, Herbert. In the Fairyland of America. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.30.
Remsen, Ira. A College Text-Book of Chemistry. H. Holt & Co. $2.
Saintsbury, George. Balzac's Comédie Humaine. (Temple Edition.) 40 vols. Macmillan.
Savage, M. J. The Passing and the Permanent in Religion. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.35.
Seaman, Owen. Horace at Cambridge. John Lane. $1.25.
Seton-Thompson, Ernest. Lives of the Hunted. Scribners. $1.75.
Stephen, Leslie. Letters of John Richard Green. Macmillan. $4.
Téllez, F. G. Don Gil de las Calzas Verdes. H. Holt & Co. 75 cents.
Triggs, H. L., and Tanner, Henry, jr. Some Architectural Works of Inigo Jones. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: John Lane.
Upton, Bertha and Florence K. The Golliwog's "Auto-go-cart." Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Walter, J. E. The Principles of Knowledge. West Newton (Pa.): Johnston & Penney. $2.
Waples, Rufus. A Handbook of Parliamentary Practice. New ed. Chicago: Callaghan & Co.
Zitkala-sa. Old Indian Legends. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Zur Westen, W. von. Ex-libris. Leipzig: Velhagen & Klasing; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.

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The November Atlantic

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is discussed in a paper, entitled *Europe and America*, by SYDNEY BROOKS.

THE BOUNDLESS PROMISE OF MIDLAND NORTH AMERICA

is revealed by J. K. HOSMER in his article upon *The Mississippi Valley*.

WHY ARE THE PUBLIC INTERESTED IN MURDER TRIALS?

Is it a natural or morbid tendency? C. E. GRINNELL of the Suffolk Bar answers these questions in *Modern Murder Trials and the Newspapers*.

A PLEA FOR AN ENDOWED AMERICAN THEATRE

concludes HENRY AUSTIN CLAPP'S interesting *Reminiscences*.

The Fiction for the November number includes an instalment of *Audrey*, by MARY JOHNSTON; *The Lover*, a short story by ELLEN DUVALL; and FRANCES AYMAR MATHEWS'S Chinese story, entitled "*Allee Same*."

The Contributors' Club and eight other contributions complete the issue

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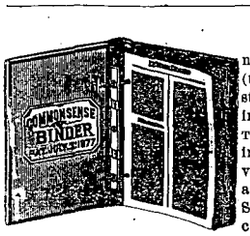

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